

# **Implementing Restorative Approaches in Education: an exploration of two case-study sites**

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### Summary:

The growing popularity of restorative justice in the UK criminal justice system has led to the progression of restorative approaches in educational settings. As institutions that help to develop pupils into citizens, schools are seen as an ideal place to use restorative approaches (RA). Restorative justice approaches in education are typified by an emphasis on healing relationships following harm. Specific restorative processes can be employed, but research suggests that when proactive and reactive approaches are used, a school will significantly benefit (Hopkins, 2004). The literatures suggests significant advantages to utilising RA, although implementation remains an issue throughout the research (Skinns *et al*, 2009). The current research explores the individual, cultural and structural factors that impact upon the implementation of RA in schools. A dual case-site study using a concurrent mixed method design was created to explore the phenomenon within context. Various methods were used to provide a holistic view of the implementation by the youth justice service (YJS). Research methods used were: pupil focus groups; staff interviews; staff questionnaires; teaching observations; and, YJS open-ended questionnaires. Data analysis was conducted separately, then combined to answer the overall research question. Findings illustrate the challenges associated with implementing restorative approaches in schools, particularly the lack of consideration to the relationship between RA and teacher authority. It is argued that schools who already place a strong emphasis on relationships will find it easier to implement RA, and equally that teachers in these schools may be less threatened by novel approaches such as RA. By ensuring that interpersonal relationships in schools are healthy and well managed, a positive school climate is created. The current research progresses the literature on restorative approaches in school and provides further insight into why restorative approaches remain difficult to implement within educational settings.

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## List of Abbreviations

RJ	Restorative justice
RA	Restorative Approaches
CJS	Criminal Justice System
YJS	Youth Justice Service
DfE	Department for Education
MM	Mixed methods
YJB	Youth Justice Board
RJI	Restorative Justice Ideology
PCI	Pupil Control Ideology
RAO1	Restorative approaches officer one
RAO2	Restorative approaches officer two

## Introduction

Restorative justice (RJ) provides an alternative way of considering disputes and conflict amongst individuals. As a contrast to seeing crime and conflict as wrong-doing against the state, RJ offers an opportunity to fix relationships harmed by crime and conflict whilst keeping in mind the needs of the victim, offender, and the wider community. The use of RJ in the Western criminal justice arena has expanded substantially over the past 40 years due to a lack of confidence in the healing powers of traditional criminal justice (Zehr, 2002). In England and Wales, RJ has been introduced (somewhat sporadically) to all major branches of the criminal justice system. RJ practices are regularly used with youth offenders, and are becoming more frequently used with adult offenders. RJ can be used pre or post-sentence and has a wide range of associated practices. The majority of practices involve the offender, victim and wider community meeting in some way; and working to make things ‘right’. RJ is also used by the police and is at their disposal at a number of different levels. The rise of popularity in RJ has led to a number of large scale evaluations in its use in the criminal justice system in England and Wales (for example: Hoyle *et al*, 2002; Shapland *et al*, 2006; Shapland *et al*, 2008; Sherman and Strang, 2008). The popularity of using RJ in various criminal justice agencies and the perceived satisfaction with restorative processes led practitioners to a natural progression of using RJ in other settings.

RJ has been adapted for use in educational and workplace settings. Whilst the core concept of repairing harm to relationships has been maintained, more preventative restorative measures have been devised to introduce into organisations, with the aim of reducing unacceptable behaviour. Similar to the concept of RJ, restorative approaches (RA) are contested in definition.<sup>1</sup> The difficulty with defining RJ and RA will be outlined in detail later in Chapter One. However, for RA in schools this research will use the following definition:

*“where staff and pupils act towards each other in a helpful and non-judgmental way; where they work to understand the impact of their actions on others; where there are fair processes that allow everyone to learn from any harm that may have been done, where responses to difficult behaviour have positive outcomes for everyone”*  
(McCluskey *et al.*, 2008a, p. 211).

Using RA involves a change in mindset for school staff in how to deal with problematic behaviour and the repercussions associated with this. A number of large pilot evaluations of the

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<sup>1</sup> For ease of reading RA will be used as an abbreviation restorative approaches and as such will be followed by the plural tense

use of RJ type approaches in schools have been carried out and generally results are positive, for example, increased pupil satisfaction in schools and reduced use of expulsion and detention (Skinns *et al*, 2009; Kokotsaki, 2013; Bitel, 2005). Schools are seen as the ideal place to implement RJ type approaches as they are naturally nurturing and educational environments, and an essential part of pupils' socialisation into society (Morrison, 2001b). However, alongside an increase in the popularity of RA in schools, there remain a number of barriers to implementation. Schools are complex organisations and it is well documented that change can be difficult (Sarason, 1982; 1996). Change can be particularly difficult with regards to behaviour management; as using punishment as a reaction to problematic behaviour is seen as an institution in schools, and one that is deeply entrenched in perceptions about what schools should be and how teachers should act (Howard, 2009).

Using RJ in schools provides a fundamentally different way of thinking about problematic behaviour. In a school using RJ: relationships and community are of the utmost importance, and behaviour that causes harm will be addressed using specific restorative processes. Restorative processes involve the individual(s) who caused the harm taking responsibility for their actions and redressing the situation in a way that is mutually beneficial and agreed upon. It is particularly important that the 'wrong-doer' remains involved with the community at all times, feels accountable for their actions and is willing to repair the harm they have caused to relationships. RA can be implemented as a 'tool' to solely deal with problematic behaviour, however research argues that a "whole-school" restorative approach is best for sustainability and promoting change. (Hopkins, 2004; Kane *et al*, 2009) A "whole-school" approach means that RA permeates all aspects of the school community and is consistently used by all members of the community. When RA is simply used as a 'tool' it is a reactive process, aimed at dealing with issues after they happen. If RA is used as a whole-school approach, both preventative and reactionary measures are used under the "restorative umbrella". An ongoing dichotomy throughout the literature highlights the difference between the reactionary and preventative uses of RA and the superiority of combining both approaches. A whole-school approach effectively limits the amount of problematic behaviour, but also has restorative processes to use when harm does occur.

The thesis contributes to the understanding of implementing RA in schools in a number of ways. Firstly, by investigating how RA will interact with the existing school culture. This area has been

researched in terms of school and organisational change, and the processes that occur within a school when change is introduced. Secondly, by exploring how individuals in the school interpret the use of restorative approaches, particularly for teachers in regards to their authority. Both staff and pupils need to understand and utilise RA in order for a whole-school approach to be utilised. Finally, the current research looks at what factors can help ease the implementation of RA in schools. The large scale pilot evaluations of RA consistently find some members of staff remain resistant to RA. Understanding why resistance exists in schools is an important part of easing the implementation and utilisation of RA.

An in-depth exploration of two case study sites provided the empirical data for the current research. The two case-study sites were selected as they were both implementing RA using the same restorative officer from the Youth Justice service. Initial training for staff members and restorative processes in each school was carried out by the restorative officer, with an expectation that they would continue restorative processes once they had received full training. By utilising the two case-study sites, the researcher was offered an in-depth and distinctive view into the implementation of RA in each school, and the ability to draw comparisons across each site into how the training was received, accepted and utilised. The approach provided a wealth of data (interviews, observations, questionnaires and pupil focus group data) that is used to explore the implementation across the schools. By investigating the implementation of RA in the schools, the thesis considers both implementation processes and the outcomes that these produce. The current research is not strictly an evaluation of the changes that RA can support in a school (as these are generally positive) however, the outcomes do provide an important gauge of how the implementation has been considered by the school. The overarching aim of the research was to provide a greater understanding of how RA were implemented, accepted, and understood in the schools. A mixed method approach to the research was designed to: provide helpful guidance for practitioners wishing to implement RA in schools; advance the area of study; and, provide directions for further research on the implementation of RA. An in-depth exploration of how RA were implemented and accepted into the schools is allowed by the development of the research subquestions. These research subquestions will be identified and discussed in the methodology. The three literature review chapters outline the development of the subquestions by exploring the areas of literature that this research addresses.



## **Main Research Question**

What are the individual, cultural and structural factors that affect the successful implementation of restorative approaches in schools?

## **Original contribution to the field**

The original contribution of the thesis comes from the progressive methodology. Often research focuses on the outcomes of any program implementation; however, this research paid explicit attention to the process of implementing RA and the effect this had on their utilisation. The current research strongly considers *how* the implementation of RA are carried out. A consistent finding throughout this research is that there are a wide range of restorative skills that teachers employ over the course of their career, although they do not always necessarily recognise them as restorative. For training staff in the future this may be helpful, particularly with regard to recognising the type of training that will successfully allow teachers to understand and use RA. Evidence based guidance is provided for schools on how to successfully implement by providing a realistic account of what teachers and pupils feel comfortable with when it comes to restorative approaches. Within the two case-sites the access allowed was considerable, and this gave the thesis a large amount of data to use that similar research has not always been afforded. The access to data allow for a wide range of approaches to be used to provide a holistic view of implementation.

## Structure of the thesis

*Chapter One* is the first of the literature review chapters, and provides an overall look at the use of RJ in Western society and its development throughout the literature. RJ is a contested concept, and this will be discussed in detail. Although this thesis is based on the use of RA in schools it is important to understand the basis of restorative justice and the underlying values and principles, in order to gain a better understanding. *Chapter One* will look at how RJ is currently used in the criminal justice system in England and Wales, and how this has evolved into the use of restorative type approaches in different organisations. Particular attention will be paid to the use of RJ in prisons, probation and youth justice. Finally, it will look at the use of RA in schools, how this is defined and what practices are used. Initially the concept of RA will just be defined in *Chapter One* particularly with regards to the processes used, with *Chapter Three* going into further detail on its implementation in schools.

*Chapter Two* is the second literature review chapter and the main focus of this will be on the ‘school ecology’. The school ecology is an overarching term that describes the community of living and structural factors within a school, and the interaction between these. Of particular interest to the thesis are aspects of the school ecology that could potentially have an effect on the implementation of RA. For example, the existing ideas surrounding discipline and punishment within a school or the existing infrastructure created to deal with unacceptable behaviour. The idea of a specific ‘school culture’ will be explored, along with the perceived difficulty of making changes to an existing school culture. Also included in Chapter Two is a discussion surrounding how the literature currently stands on behaviour management. The issues that arise when teachers feel they cannot appropriately deal with unacceptable behaviour will be explored, alongside how this may be detrimental to teaching and schools. Finally, the complex relationship between authority and teaching will be discussed. This is a progressive and interesting aspect of this thesis as the relationship between teacher authority and RA is relatively under-theorised throughout the literature. The focus will be on whether RA takes away from teacher authority roles, or if the two can somehow be consolidated.

*Chapter Three* is the final literature review chapter that draws a connection between the RA literature and school change literature. It explores further theorisation of the links between RA and authority. The idea of reclaiming discipline as an educational concept will be explored, and

particularly how this can create a relational school ecology that is in keeping with the use of RA. A relational ecology links back to the notion of the ‘school ecology’ that is reviewed in Chapter Two and discusses what kind of school ecology RA might contribute to. Both the implementation process and RA practice will be discussed in more depth. Implementing RA relates to its introduction into a school and the change process this entails. By reviewing the implementation of other RA in education, areas that were previously seen as obstacles to its use can be considered. The practical factors of implementing RA will be looked at here, as a lead on from the more complex theoretical issues. Practical issues of implementation then lead onto the methodological chapter, where the development of the research subquestions will be discussed and the research design considered.

*Chapter Four* is the methodology chapter. By utilising a progressive dual-site case study approach to answering the research questions the research allows for in-depth exploration and comparison of the implementation of RA in both sites. Chapter Four will introduce the case study sites, their demographics, and provide an explanation of how RA were implemented into the two schools. An in-depth discussion of using a pragmatic basis for this research will take place. The chosen research design will be considered alongside an extensive discussion about mixed methods research, its benefits, and potential pitfalls. Due to the nature of the research design there is some time committed to discussing the separate components of the design and how they combine to answer the research questions. Essential to this chapter is the discussion of the timing of the mixed method design, and also the weighting given to the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the research. Each method used in this research (focus groups, interviews, questionnaires, and observations) will be discussed in detail. The overlapping nature of the data and mixed methods research design are made apparent throughout Chapter Four. Ethical considerations and the integral role they played in the development of the research design will be discussed and set out. Finally, the process of analysing the data collected will be discussed here, presenting both the analysis of the quantitative data and a thematic analysis of the qualitative data. The importance of representing the dataset as a whole and capturing the phenomena taking place when RA were implemented led to thematic analysis being chosen.

*Chapter Five* represents the findings of the data analysis. Descriptive statistics are set out here in order to provide some background for the research sites. In order to test for relationships between specific factors of interest one-way analysis of variance and Pearson’s correlation coefficient are

employed, resulting in an investigation of significant relationships. Significant results are identified and what these mean in terms of the research are identified in this chapter. The main themes from the thematic data analysis are discussed under subheadings that address each of the research questions. Comparisons and similarities between *School One* and *School Two* can be drawn from the data analysis; this allows for further depth of discussion in *Chapter Six* with regards to the acceptance and uses of RA and the various forms these can take. Considered alongside the analysis are also other research projects that look at implementing RA in schools, and similarities and differences are identified here in order to be further explored in the discussion chapter.

*Chapter Six* is the main discussion chapter of the thesis. Data analysis carried out in Chapter Five is considered in light of the research questions and extensive literature reviews. Chapter Six considers the data analysis chapters in terms of the research questions and extensive literature reviews. It highlights the main results, and also results in keeping with the body of literature. *Chapter Six* is structured around the research subquestions in order to answer the overall research questions. Factors that have hindered or helped implementation in either of the schools are considered, alongside whether either of the schools have successfully introduced restorative approaches. Issues that may affect individual teachers are explored, and this progresses on to look at cultural and structural factors, and whether they are interlinked or related in any way. *Chapter Six* brings together the main research findings and situates them within the wider literature on the use of RA in schools. By situating this research and its findings within the literature base, suggestions for implementing RA successfully in schools are made. Finally, suggestions for further research that will facilitate in the advancement of the field of RA in education are made.

*Chapter Seven* is the concluding chapter of the thesis. This chapter situates the research and its conclusions within the wider theoretical literature. It presents a summary of the key research findings, and the implications of these for the wider research. Recommendations for both practitioners and for further research avenues will be discussed. Finally, the progression of the field of RA in education will be considered.

# **1. Chapter One: Restorative Justice and Restorative Approaches**

## **1.1 Introduction**

Since the 1970s, restorative justice (RJ) has become increasingly prevalent in the UK. The increased prevalence in use within the criminal justice context has led to the eventual development of the central philosophies into RJ type approaches that are used in a variety of settings. Chapter One provides a review of the literature that introduces RJ and discusses its development into RJ type approaches. Although the current research focuses on RJ type approaches in schools, it seems unwise to begin this extensive literature review without considering the roots of RA in the notion and practices of RJ. In order to provide a good basis for understanding RA in school, this chapter presents an overview of RJ and the key theoretical issues. Key restorative values and practices are discussed, and also the potential limitations of using RJ. The current uses of RJ in the criminal justice system in England and Wales will be considered in order to provide an introduction for how RA have come to be in place in educational settings. As this thesis is exploring the use of restorative approaches, the progression of RJ into RA and the organisations that use them in this context are discussed. Finally, the use of RA in schools will be discussed, along with the issues of definition, and what restorative processes in schools actually entail.

## **1.2 Defining restorative justice**

The definition of RJ is an essentially contested subject throughout the literature. RJ is inspired by the approaches of various indigenous groups, for example, in Australia and New Zealand. In indigenous groups, justice is often closely linked with spirituality and an emphasis on the restoration of harmony and balance in the group (Mirsky, 2004; Wachtel, 2013). When harm had been caused it was important for the wrong-doer to take responsibility for their actions and try and repair harm caused, but also for the community to remain cohesive. Issues would be dealt with within the community in order to ensure the wrong-doer remained integrated and connected to the community. Daly and Immarrigeon (1998) argue that contemporary RJ theories arise from a social movement in the 1970s and are grounded in writing by scholars from feminist theories of justice, psychological theories, peace-making criminology, and religious and spiritual theories. Zehr (2002) states that the move in the literature came from a deep dissatisfaction with the criminal justice system; a feeling that it contributed to, rather than healed, social conflict.

Christie (1977) added to this movement claiming that conflicts are important parts of society and argued that the state had 'stolen' conflict from victims, and therefore stolen their chance to recover from the crime. Christie (1977) believed victims of crime, in particular, had lost their rights to participate in dealing with conflict, as the field was monopolised by the state. Zehr (1990) argued that formal writings on RJ emerged as an alternative to a retributive criminal justice system that views crime as an offence against the state that must be punished. When using RJ; crime is seen as harmful to the community and relationships. When a crime is committed there is an obligation to heal and make things right by both the community and offender. For Daly (2012), retributive and restorative justice should not be staged as opposites as this is unhelpful and inaccurate. She argued this dichotomy was used to try and show that RJ is 'better' than retributive justice. Daly argues that throughout the literature on retributive and restorative justice, the terminology differs immensely and this causes issues with the understanding of and definition of RJ. She argues that this is symptomatic of a larger problem in that achieving justice, be it restoratively or otherwise, is a fraught enterprise as justice is never completely achieved (Daly, 2006).

McCold (1999) notes that not all practitioners and academics are discussing the same thing when they discuss RJ. Conceptual difficulty like this obviously has an effect on defining RJ in any succinct way. The most widely accepted definition comes from Marshall who defines RJ as:

*“a process whereby all the parties with a stake in a particular offence come together to resolve collectively how to deal with the aftermath of the offence and its implications for the future”* (Marshall, 1998, p.37).

This definition is used by the Criminal Justice System in England and Wales, however still remains contested throughout the RJ literature. As an alternative, Zehr offers:

*“RJ is a process to involve, to the extent possible, those who have a stake in a specific offence to collectively identify and address harms, needs and obligations in order to heal*

*and put things as right as possible” (Zehr, 2002, p.40)*

Some describe RJ as a set of ideals or values (Daly, 2006; Braithwaite, 2003; Johnstone, 2011), whereas others view RJ as a movement (Zehr, 2002). One of the issues with these definitions is that there is some discussion as to whether RJ should be defined as a process or an outcome (Crawford and Newburn, 2003). Zehr (1985) states that in the criminal justice arena, RJ addresses the violation of relationships and not the violation of rules. In the criminal justice context, RJ allows those who have been affected by a crime to come together and for the perpetrator to realise the full impact of this crime. Stakeholders must then all be in agreement about how this crime can be put right. The primary uses of RJ are preventing conflict, building relationships, and repairing harm by enabling people to communicate positively and effectively. RJ enables the wrong-doer to take responsibility for their actions and provides them with the recognition that their activities affect the whole community. Throughout the literature, arguments even exist as to whether a definition of RJ is needed. Zehr and Mika (1998) believe that a definition would not be particularly helpful for the literature, however others argue that in order to have a comprehensive understanding of what RJ actually is there needs to be a universally accepted definition (Miers *et al*, 2001).

Marshall draws attention to the multiple definitions of RJ being used across the literature and argues that:

*“RJ is not, therefore, a single academic theory of crime or justice, but represents in a more or less eclectic way, the accretion of actual experience in working successfully with particular crime problems” (Marshall, 1998, p. 7)*

A dedication is shown amongst practitioners to an alternative view of justice that focuses on people, and rather than viewing offences as a crime against the state, viewing them as offences against people and the reparation of this. Similarly, Pranis (2007) argues that whilst the definition is contested and varies throughout the literature there are a set of core values that exist in RJ, these being: dignity, inclusion, humility, respect, mutual care, and non-domination. Sharpe (1998) also argues that whilst definitions vary, at the heart of any RJ programs the aims are to place decisions in the hands of those who are affected by a crime, make justice more healing and

transformative, and, reduce the likelihood of future offending. A common misconception and misunderstanding of RJ is the failure to appreciate that its strengths lie in the purposes, values and principles which should then guide the responses to crime (Morris and Young, 2000). Throughout the literature, a number of underlying principles of RJ are suggested including: flexibility, non-discrimination, inclusiveness, empowerment, responsibility, accountability, honesty, trust, and equality (Barton, 2003; RJC, 2004). The merit of RJ does not come from the particular methods used, rather the underlying values and intentions

Zehr and Mika (1997) state that the fundamental underlying principle of RJ is that crime is a violation of people and relationships. These violations cause obligations and liabilities for a number of people, and RJ processes aim to heal and put right these wrongs. The priority in any RJ process should be to meet the needs of the victim and to ensure that the offender is aware of the damage they have caused to people and relationships, and their liability to heal that damage (Johnstone, 2011). Marshall (1998) believes that his set of restorative principles may orientate any agency that works in relation to crime, these are: the scope for personal involvement of those concerned (e.g. victim, offender, families, community); viewing crime problems within the social context they occur in; a preventative problem-solving direction; and, flexibility and creativity in outcomes that satisfy all stakeholders. Zehr (2002) provides a helpful analogy in terms of RJ by providing a restorative 'lens' through which to view crime and justice. The central tenets of this restorative lens are: focusing on harm and the needs of victims, the community and offenders; addressing the obligations of offenders that arise from harm, but also the obligations of the community; to incorporate an inclusive and collaborative process; to involve all legitimate stakeholders; and, to seek to put right the wrongs that have happened. The 'lens' again stands as a reminder of the paradigm shift that RJ requires. Overall, the various values and principles of RJ as conceptualised by different academics and practitioners show the importance of relationships, the community, impartiality, and righting wrongs.

Another way to view RJ is by providing a comparison between the questions the Westernised criminal justice system asks, and contrasting them with the questions a RJ approach asks (Johnstone, 2004). When a crime has been committed, the criminal justice arena often asks: Who has committed the crime? What rules have been broken? How should the individual be punished? This ties in with the idea in the Western criminal justice system that a criminal act is a violation of the state. Using RJ, crime is seen as a violation of relationships and therefore different



questions will be asked. Through a restorative 'lens', the questions asked will be more along the lines of: What happened? Who has been affected by this act and how? How can this be righted in a way that those involved find satisfactory? Where does the responsibility lie? How can things be done differently to prevent this happening again? (Zehr, 2002). The focus here is on hearing different perspectives, rebuilding relationships, and how best to support all stakeholders moving forward. In contrast, a Western criminal justice model approach will instead attempt to fact-find and punish those involved with a means to deter. There are various models of how to ask these questions and how to carry out a restorative process that vary throughout the literature and across different practitioners. All of them however, are based on the same restorative skills and values. Throughout the literature, "key restorative skills" that are supportive of the principles of RJ are mentioned. These involve: active listening; impartiality; empathy; being non-judgmental; empowering individuals affected by the crime; well-developed interpersonal skills; conflict resolution skills; and finally, relationship building skills (Barton, 2003; Hopkins, 2002; Morrison, 2005a). These skills need to be developed in all members of the community, particularly those facilitating a restorative process, and are important for those going through any RJ process. Most models include separate preparation of those involved, a meeting of the involved parties, a meeting where everyone can tell their story and attempt to acknowledge harm and responsibility with a resolution of how to move forward from the crime and right the wrongs. The review will now run through the main restorative practices that are used in Western Society.

### **1.3 Restorative Justice Methods and Practice**

Regardless of the conceptual difficulty of RJ, there is a clear dedication from proponents to the positive effects it can have on offenders, victims and the communities where harm occurs. As Marshall (1998) explained the literature is a mix of in-depth RJ theory and confusion surrounding definition, but also a variety of practices that have been used successfully within the criminal justice arena. As a result of this there are a number of standardised RJ practices that have become established in the Western criminal justice system.

#### *1.3.1 Victim Offender Mediation*

Victim Offender Mediation (VOM) is seen by Umbreit (2000) as the 'forerunner' of RJ models used in Western justice. The fundamental purpose of VOM meetings is to bring offenders and victim together face to face in a safe environment with structured dialogue, in a community

setting (Schiff, 2003). Umbreit (2000) suggests that a separate meeting take place before the VOM meeting in order to assess whether both offender and victim are ready, willing and able to take part in the meeting. The meeting will take place in the presence of a trained mediator who will facilitate the structured dialogue between victim and offender. As an outcome to the mediation a mutually agreeable solution may be reached, where the offender aims to 'put right' the wrong they caused.

### *1.3.2 Family Group Conferencing*

Family Group Conferencing (FGC) is based on ancient Maori practices in New Zealand, where families and the community would come together when harm had been caused by a person (often a young person) in their family (Morris and Maxwell, 2003). FGC is widely seen as way of 'empowering' families and offenders in making decisions when they have caused harm. Typically the offender and victim would meet separately with their own families. Followed by a conference where all members are present and the impacts of the crime can be identified and dealt with in a manner that is deemed appropriate by all (Schiff, 2003). In the UK, family group conferences are particularly utilised in child protection cases; where they give the wider family a greater say in decisions made regarding the welfare of the family member.

### *1.3.3 Circles*

Using restorative circles is seen as a more time consuming and intensive task than the other forms of standardised RJ (Robert and Roach, 2003). A circle is intended to provide a way of talking that allows everyone involved to speak without interruption, have their story heard, listen deeply, and feel that they have been respected and treated equally (Greenwood, 2005). A circle consists of five separate stages, hence why it is seen as one of the more complicated processes. The first circle is between the offender and the assessment team where the offence is discussed. The second circle is where the victim tells the offender the effect that the offence has had on their life. This is intended to be healing for the victim. The third circle is where the community becomes involved and is also intended to be healing for the victim. The fourth circle is a sentencing circle where all members must develop a mutually agreeable outcome of what would repair the harm. Finally, there may be a number of follow-up circles that ensure that harm is being repaired and the victim and offender are being supported (Schiff, 2003).

#### *1.3.4 Panels*

Schiff (2003) states that panels usually occur in the context of non-violent offending, burglary or property offences. The panel will be made up of members of the community who initially meet with the offender to discuss what happened during the offence and what kind of reparation may be necessary. The members of the panel are then responsible for determining the outcomes, drawing up a contract, and ensuring that the offender is in agreement with the outcome. The panel will then be responsible in ensuring that the offender has suitable support to carry out the reparation and that they do so within the timeframe agreed. This encourages the community to reclaim and become a part of the justice process in their area.

These four restorative interventions are used across the Western criminal justice system, alongside more traditional criminal justice punishments. It can be seen that the main focus of them is to address the wrongdoing and gain acceptability and reparation from the offender in a way that everyone involved is satisfied. Whilst these interventions all seem relatively similar, the largest difference is the number of individuals involved (Barton, 2003). Ranging from the relatively small group of victim offender mediation, to the much more community led panels who decide in accordance with the offender the best outcome for the victim, offender and community. As these practices differ quite drastically from other practices used in the criminal justice system there are a number of potential pitfalls including inadequate structural support for the practices, lack of resources and organisation, and the time consuming nature of the practices. The main limitations of RJ and its processes will now be reviewed.

## **1.4 Limitations of Restorative Justice**

One of the initial and most widely discussed limitations of RJ has already been discussed previously in this chapter, the lack of a concrete definition of RJ. Leading on from this are a number of problems, particularly for practicing RJ. A limitation discussed at length by Daly (2006) is that RJ deals with the penalty aspect of the process, and not the fact-finding aspect. RJ is not intended to address whether an individual is ‘innocent or guilty’ but rather deal with what happens after an individual has admitted to the offence or been found guilty. Initially, this means that the criminal justice system will be involved to establish who is to blame as this is not a part of what RJ sets out to discover. In Western society, RJ is invariably linked with the criminal justice system (CJS), as it is often the CJS or police who direct individuals towards restorative interventions. RJ differs from the criminal justice system as it is participatory and consensual, however, this can cause confusion to arise. One of the rights of defendants in the CJS is for an individual to state that they did not commit an offence and defend themselves in court. This right of citizens to defend themselves from the state’s power to prosecute and punish them is fundamental to the criminal justice system. There is the potential for this right not to be afforded if an individual is initially transferred to a restorative intervention. Leading on from this is another issue raised by Marshall (1998), that defendants are offered a wide range of protections against wrongful conviction and disproportionate punishment, which they are not afforded during RJ cases. Legal defence and judicial overview is apparent in most criminal cases, however RJ does not require these and therefore may lead to an outcome that is disproportionate for the crime committed.

By looking at RJ from a victims rights perspective there are another set of limitations to be considered. Ashworth (2000) cautions against allowing victims to have a say in outcomes for offenders, and by doing so is arguing against one of the fundamental facets of RJ. Similarly to Marshall’s concern about protections against disproportionate punishment, Ashworth (2000) shows concern that the burden of punishment should be proportionate for the crime committed. Countering this Daly (2006) argues that when RJ processes do happen, levels of fairness for both offenders and victims are rated highly. Secondly, victims have the right to justice and the right to not be further harmed by the same incident, known as secondary victimisation (Marshall, 1998). There is a concern in RJ processes that the victim will be promised healing and reparation, when in fact they are there for the purpose of helping the offender (Wright, 2002). The victims right to justice involves feeling that the offender has been effectively dealt with, and their actions suitably

condemned. The victim should not become a part of the rehabilitation for the offender and should not feel as if this is the case (Ashworth, 2000). Healing the victim needs to be an integral part of the process, and victims should not be made to experience undue distress. Daly (2006) argues that victim distress is a large challenge for the field of RJ, and the different ways in which individuals experience victimisation need to be carefully considered when attempting a restorative process. A final limitation to be addressed here is whether all individuals have the capacity to take part in a meaningful RJ process. There are certain skills needed by offenders and victims in order for them to be able to take part in a restorative narrative. Empathy and communication skills are particularly important here, and with young offenders or those with learning disabilities or mental health problems this may prove problematic. Strang (2002) found that what most victims want from their offenders is a sincere apology, however, Daly (2006) argues that not all individuals will have the skills to communicate this to each other. A lack of communication could lead to feelings of discontentment from victims who feel they have not got their apology, and feelings of frustration from offenders who feel unable to fully participate and be heard.

### **1.5 Restorative Justice in England and Wales**

It is important to look at the wider context of the introduction of RJ into more mainstream use and therefore this section will concisely outline how RJ has been implemented into the CJS in England and Wales. This will cover three broad areas where RJ is used: the police service; the prison service; and the probation service. Marshall (1998) argues that the introduction of RJ in the UK has been done in a haphazard manner where often offenders are placed into RJ proceedings as a means of diverting them from the CJS, and therefore lacks real input from offender, the community, and particularly victims. RJ was initially introduced into the youth justice arena in England and Wales, as is often the way with new criminal justice type approaches. RJ in youth settings will be discussed later in the chapter as it looks at the development of RJ, into restorative approaches. Morris (2004) argues that since youths are not yet seen as full citizens, they receive different punishments and a different system to adults. They are not seen as fully capable, yet they still deserving of punishment when they have done wrong (Brown, 2005; Goldson, 2000). The Government has also released a “RJ Action Plan for the criminal justice system”. This action plan covers the period from 2014 to 2018. The overarching vision is for “*good quality, victim-focused RJ to be available at all stages of the criminal justice system*” (Ministry of Justice, 2014, p.2). Included in this is its use pre-sentence and post-sentence, and in relation to out of court disposals. The availability of it to all victims

*“irrespective of their location, the age of the offender or the offence committed against them”* (Ministry of Justice, 2014, p.2) is emphasis. There is a clear directive to ensuring that RJ becomes an option for a number of crimes, and at a number of levels.

#### *1.5.1 The Police Service*

The police have at their disposal a number of levels of RJ interventions that they can use for both adults and children in England and Wales. Bazemore and Griffiths (2003) state the three fundamental underpinnings to restorative policing are: repairing harm caused by an offence; promoting community, victim and offender involvement with the processes; and in doing so transforming relationships between the police and communities by promoting greater ownership of crime and conflict. The association of chief police officers (ACPO) specifies three levels at which the police can implement RJ. Stage one is at an informal level with an instant use when an incident occurs on the street, this can be used for antisocial behaviour and low level crime. The second stage can be used as an alternative to, or in addition to, more formal criminal justice processes. Stage two could involve a neighbourhood justice panel or a victim offender mediation meeting depending on the severity of the incident and whether its a first offence. Stage three deals with mainly offenders who have been through the criminal justice system and can often happen in prison. Stage three cases tend to be very complex and require a number of experienced facilitators and specialists.

#### *1.5.2 The Prison Service*

Over the past twenty years the use of RJ initiatives in prisons has increased, although they have not always been recognised (Shapland *et al*, 2006). There is no coherent national strategy on the use of RJ in prisons, and it is not mandatory to deliver it in custodial settings. In prison settings it is found that RJ is used inconsistently and opportunities for RJ were not always recognised (Shapland *et al*, 2006). Inconsistency is often due to staff being unable to differentiate between RJ and other types of victim awareness programmes (Criminal Justice Joint Inspection, 2012). Unlike other organisations where RJ is becoming increasingly embedded it was found that in prisons RJ was still seen as completely new and innovative. Where restorative pilot evaluations have been used in prisons the outcomes have been reasonably positive but a lot of work is needed in order to bring prisons in-line with the rest of the criminal justice system (Shapland *et al*, 2006).

### 1.5.3 *The Probation Service*

As with the prison service, RJ has been haphazardly introduced into probation, however all probation trusts are committed to developing RJ within their organisations. In their response to the Justice Committee's report on *The Role of the Probation Service* (Ministry of Justice, 2011) the Government stated that they realised the potential that RJ had in being used more widely in the probation board, however in order to implement this the victim's best interest should be at heart, and the implementation needed to be cost and time effective. There was a recognition by the probation trusts that RJ could particularly be of use in improving community relations and victim satisfaction, however there were many barriers mentioned in implementation such as priority being given to other initiatives to address offending behaviour and protect the public, and the availability of resources (particularly, the cost of such initiatives) (Criminal Justice Joint Inspection, 2012).

## 1.6 From Restorative Justice to Restorative Practices and Approaches

The literature review will now progress from the use of RJ in the criminal justice system, to its development into RJ type approaches in various settings. As the popularity of RJ has increased in Western society, it has been adapted to use in various other organisations and places. Whilst the fundamentals of restorativeness remain the same, that wrongdoing harms relationships and this harm needs to be repaired, the name has evolved from 'restorative justice' to restorative '*approaches*' or '*practices*'. Wachtel argues that the difference lies in the concept that RA is a social science that aims to "*build social capital and achieve social discipline through participatory learning and decision making*" (2013, p.1). Wachtel (2013) believes that RJ is a subset of restorative approaches, and acts as the reactive part of restorative approaches. RA is therefore the proactive forming of relationships, mutual responsibility, empathy and belonging to the community that precedes and hopefully prevents conflict and wrong doing. Other proponents argue that the use of the word justice is too formalised for an educational setting, and brings about ideas of criminal justice that are inappropriate to use in schools as educationalists do not feel comfortable with it (Hopkins, 2004).

### *1.6.1 Restorative approaches in the workplace*

Within the workplace the use of RA is seen as a contrast to the more adversarial approach seen in many workplaces (Davey, 2009). When harm occurs a more traditional approach would ask “What happened?”, “Who is to blame?” and “What punishment or sanction is needed?”, whereas a restorative approach would ask “What happened?”, “What harm has been caused?”, and “What needs to be done to make things right?”. In order to change behaviours, Davey (2009) argues that sanctions need to provide both meaning and relevance in the given context. RA do this by emphasising the harm and creating a deterrent effect, due to the relationships harmed and personal accountability of those involved. Lambert *et al* (2011) state that in a workplace context RA mean that when harm has been caused: this behaviour is seen as harmful to the wider organisation and community; the community and wider workforce need to be involved in dealing with wrongdoing; the accountability placed on the wrongdoer means they have a responsibility to repair harm and relationships; and, by dealing with wrongdoing in this manner everyone gains the opportunity to reflect on and learn from the behaviour and processes. RA here exist alongside McCold and Wachtel’s (2003) ideas of creating an atmosphere informed by the underlying restorative values and principles that reduces the amount of conflict that occurs in the first place, but when does it occur all members of the community should be well equipped to deal with it in mutually beneficial way.

## **1.7 How and why did restorative justice develop in schools?**

### *1.7.1 Youth Justice in Wales*

In order to provide some context for the research it is necessary to discuss youth justice in Wales. The youth justice system (YJS) is provided by the Welsh government and the Ministry of Justice for England and Wales. The youth justice board and Welsh Government must work together in order to ensure it works effectively (YJB, 2014). Whilst youth justice has not yet been fully devolved to Wales there are policy discourses between England and Wales that demonstrate a particular emphasis on welfare and rights of children (Welsh Government, 2014). England and Wales each share the same legislative framework for youth justice, however Field (2014) argues that there is a distinctive rights and welfare based approach in Wales. In 2009, the Howard League noted that there were a number of signs of a more human rights approach to youth justice in Wales, with a particular focus on education, community sentences and prevention of youth offending (Howard League, 2009). The All Wales Youth Offending Strategy (Welsh Government, 2004) states that one of the main principles of youth justice in Wales is that children should be treated as ‘children first, offenders second’. Field (2014) argues that in England youths are often viewed by



their criminality first, which can create ongoing problems. The Welsh Government and the Youth Justice Board in Wales created a joint strategy to improve services for young people in Wales that are intended to reduce risk of offending behaviour. The Youth Justice Board and Welsh government have a number of principles behind any youth justice mechanism and youth justice policy. These principles are as follows:

- *Young people are children first, offenders second;*
- *Young people in the YJS have the same access to their rights and entitlements as any other young person;*
- *The voice of the young person is actively sought and listened to;*
- *Services focus on early intervention and holistic multi-agency support;*
- *Promotion of a culture where identifying and promoting effective practice is fundamental to improving outcomes for young people;*
- *Services are held to account for addressing the needs of young people’;*
- *The youth justice sector is supported to develop the knowledge and skills to understand and address the needs of young people;*
- *The voices of victims are heard, and they are provided with the opportunity to share their views and take part in RJ.*

(Welsh Government, 2014, p. 5)

The focus of the YJS in Wales is clearly preventing offending. However where offending does occur, the focus is minimising the potential for future offending and ensuring that a child is first and foremost treated as a child. The use of RJ is also explicitly mentioned as an alternative mechanism to deal with young people in order to hopefully prevent them coming into contact with the police again. The YJS in Wales show a commitment to preventing child custody and providing alternatives to this. A number of the principles are also in line with restorative thinking, for example, ensuring that the voice of the young person is actively sought and listened to and the holding of various services accountable for young people’s needs.

RJ principles were first introduced into youth justice settings in England and Wales, where an emphasis was placed on: responsibility, restoration, and reintegration. Further from this the ‘referral order’ was created from the Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act 1999, which was

available to 10-17 years old who have committed a first offence who admit wrongdoing. Part of this referral order was the use of restorative panel. Finally, in 2008 the Youth Restorative Disposal was introduced for the police to use as an alternative to arrest, where the police would see whether the victim and offender consented to being part of the process. The National Standards for Youth Justice (YJB, 2013) stated that Youth Offending Teams must have “*have processes in place to ensure that victims of youth crime are involved, as appropriate, in a range of restorative processes that seek to put right the harm that they have experienced*” (p.27). In the same year, a Green Paper titled “Breaking the Cycle” (MoJ, 2010) was published that stated that victims needs a more central role in youth justice, and RJ should be more widely utilised in low level offences in order to lessen the rate of reoffending. This gradual development of RJ in the youth arena shows how RJ popularity has slowly increased within our criminal justice system and has inspired the move into other organisations.

RJ type approaches have developed in schools due to their prevalence and rise in the criminal justice arena in England and Wales (Kane *et al*, 2006).<sup>2</sup> From here, restorative justice type approaches in schools will be discussed in terms of restorative “approaches” or “practices”, whilst RJ as previously discussed will continue to be referred to as RJ. Often the use of the word justice in educational settings is seen as too reminiscent of the criminal justice system, and gives too much emphasis to only the formal restorative processes such as conferencing. There are a number of factors that have contributed to the rise in popularity of restorative type approaches with regards to youth justice in the criminal context, and also behaviour within the school context. In a review of risk factors that contribute to offending behaviour, a connection between child welfare and youth offending has been identified. The risk factors that were identified are as follows: hyperactive, aggressive behaviour; lack of stability in home life; exclusion and truancy; substance abuse; poor training and employment; low school participation and achievement; involvement in bullying; and, bullying (Berridge *et al*, 2001; Hammersley *et al*, 2003; YJB, 2001; DfE, 2010; YJB, 2010). The risks of regularly using exclusionary practices as punishment for behavioural problems have been documented as an aggravating factor for criminal behaviour in later life (Amstutz and Mullet, 2005; Prior and Paris, 2005). Reports like this eventually led to multi-agency partnerships, with professionals from many different disciplines, beginning to come together with a focus on child welfare and the social, emotional, and mental health needs of young people. When the Audit

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<sup>2</sup> The research literature focuses on secondary schools and where primary schools are discussed they will be explicitly noted

Commission published 'Youth Justice 2004, A review of the reformed Youth Justice System' they found there was a large proportion of young people making amends and reparation for their offending using RJ. The House of Commons Justice Committee have since published their report on Youth Justice (2013) and praised the rise of RJ with regards to youth offending. There is a belief that more should be done to make it an integral part of the youth justice and educational system.

There are certain well documented educational factors that are thought to be risk factors in youth offending, so good schooling is particularly important here. The YJB (2001) and Farrington (2002) found that school related risk factors include achievement, interaction, investment or engagement in schooling and the quality of schooling. Prior and Paris (2005) found that research relating to schooling and risk factors for offending behaviour in youths tends to take two directions. The first being the significance of the children's own relationship with schooling and their own attitudes, beliefs and issues that influence this. The second factor is the school culture itself, and the schools collective response to its pupils. Prior and Paris (2005) highlight the importance of the school in integrating children into their community and society as citizens with a sense of worth. Harsh disciplinary approaches such as zero tolerance have been found to fail to address risk factors and increase the likelihood of pupils falling into the "school-to-prison pipeline" (Skiba and Peterson, 1999). The Ministry of Justice (2014) reviewed the RJ action plan and how the introduction of RJ in both youth and adult settings was being carried out. They found that whilst RJ had positive effects where it was being carried out there were a number of factors that need addressing, these include: heightening the awareness of RJ, particularly amongst victims; increasing clarity and understanding of what RJ actually is; strengthening the statutory footing of RJ; increasing the understanding of RJ in the criminal justice system; and, ensuring best practice is maintained.

In 1999, the Youth Justice Board in England and Wales funded numerous projects that were deemed restorative in order for them to be evaluated. Whilst not completely successful, Wilcox and Hoyle (2004) found that 87% of young persons who were involved felt they had been treated respectfully and fairly. In 2001 the Home Office funded three RJ schemes where Shapland *et al* (2006) found that offenders were appreciative of the opportunity to apologise and high levels of participation were reported over the three schemes. In an assessment of RJ in the UK context, Sherman and Strang (2007) revealed what whilst the results of different RJ schemes were overall variable, in instances where there was a personal victim and the crime was more serious RJ was more likely to make an impact. The government printed guidelines for the Youth Justice Board

and Youth Offending Teams (YOTs) (Youth Justice Board, 2013). YOTs have a duty to comply with the code of conduct for victims and part of this is contacting victims and giving them the choice to be involved in restorative processes.

Restorative type approaches have long been used in some schools without any formal arrangements, and as time has progressed these approaches have developed into replicable programs that aim to address a number of different problems within a school (Sherman and Strang, 2007). In 1997 the Thames Valley Police introduced an officer into a school on a full-time basis to deal with problems in a restorative manner and work closely with the staff and pupils within the school. The success of the Thames Valley pilot project led other police forces in the UK to join forces with them and advertise the use of RA in the criminal justice and school context. A number of public events raised the profile of RA and highlighted the potential of RA in settings such as schools and prisons (Preston, 2002). The RJ in Schools (RJiS) project was established in 2002, which took place in 26 schools across England and Wales and involved Youth Offending Teams (YOT's). The Safer Schools Partnership (SSP), which was a partnership of many different education, government and policing agencies, created a new policing model for schools that is based on restorative principles. The SSP aimed to provide a safe, encouraging and supportive school environment for pupils, to minimise the factors earlier discussed that can predict criminal behaviour in later life. The 'Respect' agenda also encouraged the use of RA with young people as a way to help engage them with the community, understand the impact of their behaviours on others, and develop self-respect. The effectiveness of RJ in youth based setting is well documented, and inevitably led to the idea that schools were the ideal place to try and implement a RJ type approach.

## **1.8 Restorative approaches in Schools**

Key elements of restorative approaches (RA) in schools will be discussed in this section by exploring the values, beliefs, definitions and terminology relating to the use of RA in education. It will also look at some of the models relating to RA, and the processes and practices related to this. Braithwaite's (1989) reintegrative shaming theory will be explored as one of the theories that looks at the importance of shame and shaming in a disciplinary context, and the theoretical underpinnings of RA in schools will be looked at. Finally, large-scale evaluations of RA in schools will be reviewed.

The development of social capital, through the development of social and emotional literacy, is essential to society's need to build and maintain civility (Morrison, 2001b; Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). As an institution on the societal level and a community on the micro-level the school is an essential part of pupils' socialisation into society. Schools are under pressure to create environments where pupils can develop social and academic skills whilst being sensitive to numerous individual backgrounds and cultural needs (Husu and Tirri, 2007). When there are issues with behavioural management for an individual both in school and the family, the responses would do well to compliment each other (Karp and Breslin, 2001). A consistent approach across both family and school life, could potentially increase a pupil's feelings of security. In a secure family, harm is often dealt with in a reintegrative manner where there is focus on the moral dimension of the misbehaviour, the effect it has on others, how best to begin to repair this harm, and supporting the individual who caused the harm as well as the individual who was harmed (Braithwaite, 1989). The distinction between school and family discipline is clearly visible as within a stable family, there is usually no question that the child will be reintegrated within the family and therefore this is an important part of disciplinary structure in modern life. Conversely in a school where exclusionary practices can be utilised there is some question about whether a pupil will be allowed back into the community after unacceptable behaviour.

Behaviour management outlines an important set of issues within schools, and traditional approaches are no longer creating satisfaction for members of the school community. Research shows a rise of instances of violence and aggression in UK schools, and an increasing dissatisfaction with how these are handled (Houlston *et al*, 2009; Brown and Winterton, 2010). Dissatisfaction makes for an unpleasant school experience for pupils and staff with an

atmosphere that may be stressful and not conducive to a happy schooling experience. Also, for pupils who are involved in the school disciplinary procedures, such as exclusion, it increases their chances of committing a crime in the future and excludes them from the school community which makes them more at risk of future rule breaking (Braithwaite, 1989; McCold and Wachtel, 2003). Whilst the overall rates of fixed term exclusions and permanent exclusions has declined in previous years in Wales, a higher number of pupils eligible for free school meals or with special educational needs showed higher instances of exclusion (Statistics for Wales, 2015). This shows the need of disciplinary strategies that are fair, and most importantly, inclusive for all members of the community. It was previously discussed how school conduct is a sound indicator of future problems with criminal behaviour, therefore early intervention in schools is essential to try and reverse this trend. It has consistently been observed that punitive school policies deny children educational opportunities, often making little impact on pupil behaviour and failing to make schools safer places (Gonzalez, 2012). Zero tolerance discipline policies that are widely used in America are seen as overly restrictive by staff working in the school system and of little benefit to the pupils involved (Rappoport, 2005). In some schools that use zero-tolerance policies the pupils actually report feeling less safe within the school community and there is little evidence that it works in their favour (McNeely *et al*, 2002; Skiba and Peterson, 1999).

Educational theory clearly sets out the importance and need for healthy relationships between all members of the school community and a RJ type approach has a lot to offer in creating strong relationships within the school (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001). Wachtel argues that *“the increasingly difficult and violent behaviour among school students and related punitive school climate are both products of the alienation and loss of community that plagues modern society in general”* (Wachtel, 2005, p.1). Much of the literature suggests that schools need to try a new approach to bring a sense of community into the school, and there is a need for a re-evaluation of the way school staff attempt to achieve discipline. In research carried out in Australian schools, Slee (1995) found that when corporal punishment was abolished there was not the expected re-evaluation of the nature of power and authority in schools. Rather, exclusion and suspensions were just used in place of corporal punishment without reconceptualising why this happened. With discipline in schools it could be the case that punishment is carried out the way it always has been and therefore the way it ought to be done without much thought of how education needs to develop alongside society. School communities, staff and parents tend to focus on how punishment should be used when school rules are broken (Cameron and

Thorsborne, 2001).

It is obvious that as developmental institutions schools play an important role in the maintenance of civil society. A different approach to issues in schools is needed to ensure positive school relationships and inclusion. An approach that is inclusive and encourages pupils to think about their actions will also benefit society by teaching pupils to be good citizens (Blood, 2005; Morrison, 2001; O'Callaghan, 2005). Schools, however, also have the ability to exclude and stigmatise, which is often one of the ways in which control is achieved. The school setting is thought to be, by some, the ideal place to introduce the restorative philosophy due to the supportive nature of the environment: a school encourages and supports academic education and is also in a position to develop conflict resolution skills and emotional literacy (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005; Crawley, 1995). It has been suggested that by widening the reach of RJ to RJ type approaches in schools and within the family that the true potential of restorative practices can be realised.

*“If the social movement for RJ is about more than just changing the practices of states, if it can have an impact on an entire culture, if it actually succeeds in changing families and schools towards more restorative practices, the effects on crime should be much more considerable.”* (Braithwaite and Strang, 2001, p.6)

Restorative approaches is an umbrella term that covers a range of practices modelled on the main philosophies of RJ. RA require the school to view wrong-doing as damage to the relationships within the school and a violation against the people in the school and wider community. It moves away from ‘rule-breaking’ and traditional disciplinary sanctions and creates a platform for wider participation and involvement in problem solving in an inclusive manner. Whilst external control is important in a child’s development and learning what is right and wrong, the development of an internal locus of control and self-discipline is the most important determinant of a child’s future behaviour (Braithwaite, 1989). By holding pupils accountable for their actions and making them think about the impact of their behaviour on others, RA helps to develop an internal locus of control. A school using RA would have a relationship management policy instead of a behavioural management policy, with a focus on the needs and responsibilities of all members of the school community (Thorsborne and Vinegrad, 2003). One of the main aims of RA is necessitating

individuals are held accountable for their wrong-doings, but also ensuring that they are reintegrated back into the school community. Reintegration is seen as preferential to separating individuals from the community, as this can increase the potential for resentment and recidivism (Karp and Breslin, 2001).

The use of RA within a school is thought to: improve student behaviour; help repair harm; restore relationships; provide effective leadership; reduce crime and bullying; and strengthen civil society (Wachtel, 2012). There are several fundamental elements of good restorative practices within schools that help in challenging and changing student behaviour: fostering awareness of how others have been affected by the wrongdoing; avoiding “telling off” pupils as they tend to react in a defensive way; accepting that fault is often unclear in incidents and they may not always be a definite sufferer and wrong-doer; making it clear that the disapproval is only of the wrong-doers behaviour and not of them as a person; and finally, seeing every instance of harm caused as an opportunity for the community to learn and grow (Wachtel, 1999b). The process of using RA in school means that: parents feel that the school is a caring environment that they want to contribute to; school staff no longer feel frustrated and hopeless as they have a constructive approach to harm; sufferers feel supported, able to voice their emotions and continue their investment in education; bystanders are more likely to speak up as they have confidence that their views will be taken into consideration; and, wrongdoers understand that they are responsible for their actions, learn to be held accountable, and begin to want to help heal the harm they have caused (Amstutz and Mullet, 2005).

In the previous section, the term “restorative justice” was used to describe a range of processes that are used within the criminal justice context. Many argue that the word justice is inappropriate in a school context, as breaking the school rules does not often coincide with breaking the law often. The word justice conjures ideas of “criminal justice” that schools often wish to distance themselves from. Using “justice” appears to narrow the idea of using RJ to only situations where the criminal justice system would have been used (Van Ness and Strang, 2001). There are arguments put forward that “justice” should remain, as it is actually referring to social justice. However, Hopkins (2007) argues that if educationalists are more comfortable with not including the word justice then it is not up to researchers to tell them differently. A broader conceptualisation of “justice” is needed in order to make RJ appropriate for schools, and this has



yet to happen within the mainstream educational literature (McCluskey *et al*, 2008b). The International Institute of Restorative Practices (IIRP) offers a number of distinguishing features between RJ and restorative practices. The IIRP see RJ as a reactive response to wrong-doing. Whereas they view restorative practices as both the reactive response, but also the proactive formal and informal processes that contextualises wrongdoing in the school culture (Wachtel, 2012). “Approaches” and “practices” are most often used to describe restorativeness within the school context. This thesis will use the term “restorative approaches”. RA covers not only the formal processes undertaken, but also the restorative philosophy that underpins this, becoming a part of the school and its community. The words “offender” and “victim” will also be exchanged for “wrong-doer” and “sufferer” due to the use of the former in the criminal justice context. It is argued that by using the terms “victim”, “offender” and “perpetrator” the research possible uses a discourse that criminalises and casts aspersions on young people (McCluskey *et al*, 2008b). Throughout the research the terms processes, skills and philosophy will be used whilst referring to restorative approaches. Hopkins (2002) created a diagram to show the importance and relevance of these three concepts and helps to explain them further.

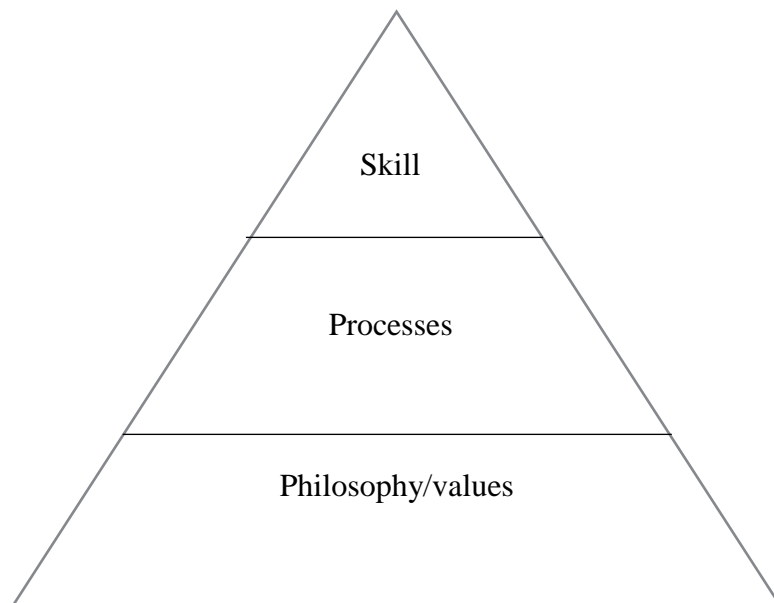


Figure 1: Restorative Pyramid, Hopkins (2002)

RA is an umbrella term covering a range of processes, philosophies and skills to try and deal with problematic behaviour and conflict as shown by the diagram. The restorative philosophy is

the main basis of RA in schools, with the skills built on these to repair relationships, and finally, the restorative processes that are used when harm occurs. By utilising all three levels of the diagram, a school would be operating under a “whole-school” restorative approach. A whole-school restorative approach will be discussed at length in Chapter Two and Three. As with RJ, the definition of RA has been highly debated, mainly due to the confusion surrounding a definition of RJ. The definition of RA in schools that will be used for the current research is:

*"where staff and pupils act towards each other in a helpful and non-judgmental way; where they work to understand the impact of their actions on others; where there are fair processes that allow everyone to learn from any harm that may have been done; where responses to difficult behaviour have positive outcomes for everyone."* (McCluskey *et al*, 2008a, p. 211)

Whereas, Wachtel (2013) defines restorative practices as

*“a social science that studies how to build social capital and achieve social discipline through participatory learning and decision-making. The use of restorative practices helps to: reduce crime, violence and bullying; improve human behaviour; strengthen civil society; provide effective leadership; restore relationships; and, repair harm”* (Wachtel, 2013, p.1).

There are a range of practices that come under the “RA umbrella”, these range from very formal proceedings, to very informal questions and statements that are just used in passing. The next section will briefly run through the different restorative processes that are used in schools.

### *1.8.1 Victim-Offender Mediation*

This a process whereby the person who has caused harm and the person who has been harmed come together to discuss their emotions, stories and what can be done to help right the harm that has been caused. This is done with the help of a trained mediator who will help both parties create a plan that allows the wrong doer to take responsibility for the harm and helps repair the harm for the sufferer.

### *1.8.2 Conferencing*

Conferencing is similar to victim-offender mediation, however, it involves a wider range of people. This means that more of the community are involved with conferencing; it could be members of the family who are there in a supportive role or other members of the community who voice the effect of the harm on them.

### *1.8.3 Circles*

Circles are reminiscent of the 'circle-time' that often occurs in primary schools. Circle are a process where all members of a circle have a chance to talk about concerns they may have. The purpose of these circles is to create a feeling of community and cohesion within the school and can also be used as a reintegrative method for pupils who have caused harm.

### *1.8.4 Peer Mediation*

This process is similar in some ways to victim-offender mediation where a mediator assists the wrong-doer and a sufferer to come to a conclusion where both feel satisfied with the result and the wrong-doer has accepted been held accountable for their actions. However, the difference with peer mediation is that pupils will be trained as mediators and can facilitate meetings between two parties. This process also works when there is not a clear wrong-doer.

### *1.8.5 'Classroom' and 'corridor' conferences*

These are impromptu conferences that can be held with no warning. They involve bringing the wrong-doer and the sufferer together, with the help of a member of staff who acts as mediator, and using restorative dialogue to ascertain what happened and why and hopefully come to a resolution there and then. If the situation cannot be resolved (for example the wrong-doer does not wish to be held accountable or the sufferer is not happy with the proposed resolution) then this would be advanced to a conference or victim offender mediation.

### *1.8.6 Affective questions and statement*

Affective questions and statements are the most basic form of restorative approach that can be

used. They involve asking questions such as “why did you behave in that manner?” or a simple statement such as “you really hurt my feelings when you behaved that way”. These enable the sufferer to voice their feelings on the matter and show the impact of the wrong-doers behaviour on them and allows the wrong-doer to consider their actions and hopefully be able to take responsibility for them. This will often result in the wrong-doer offering a simple apology as a means of showing they have taken into consideration the feelings of the sufferer and are holding themselves accountable. Often in these situations an apology is enough as affective questions and statements are to be used as part of the everyday dialogue of a restorative school community.

These different levels of restorative actions and processes fall under what Wachtel (2013) calls the “Restorative Practices Continuum”. The continuum shows that RA are not just limited to formal conferences and processes, but rather the continuum of processes and practices discussed above. This range aims to develop a community that is relationship based and able to maintain and manage relationships when conflict does occur. Both proactive and reactive approaches are essential in Wachtel’s view to provide a ‘whole-school’ approach to RA (2013).



Figure 2: Restorative Practice Continuum, Wachtel (2013)

## 1.9 Underpinning Theories

There are various theoretical foundations specific to RJ that aim to cover the paradigm shift that RJ often encompasses. The underpinning theories this research has chosen for RA are in line with, and have specifically been discussed in terms of education.

### 1.9.1 Reintegrative Shaming

In 1989, Braithwaite developed his reintegrative shaming theory that suggests that an individuals pro-social behaviour originates from the desire to belong to a group, and avoid

discontent of those within the group (Braithwaite, 1989). This group could be friendship, familial, or community-based. Braithwaite argues that key to behaviour change lies in an individual's relationships; these relationships have a big influence on how an individual is accepted after a harmful act, and also the individual's behaviour. Braithwaite (1989) believed that antisocial behaviour arose when individuals are distanced from social relationships by other individuals who, whilst unimportant, reprimand their behaviour. Reintegrative shaming theory makes the case for community involvement and disapproval when an individual has caused harm, necessitating that the individual should be treated with respect and ensure their reintegration. The community should reinforce to the wrong-doer that the organisation does not condone and accept their behaviour, however should also offer support for them. This provides a direct contrast to 'stigmatising shaming' that forces individuals who have caused harm to become further disconnected from the community and support that they need (Braithwaite, 1989). As a critique of Braithwaite's (1989) reintegrative shaming, Bazemore and Griffith's (2003) argue that it strays from the fundamental concepts of RA as it focuses on crime control and prevention, without looking at the victim and justice issues that arise in other RA research. Maxwell and Morris (2002) also criticised reintegrative shaming on the basis that remorse in individuals does not necessarily have to be prompted by disapproval, but rather by their own sense of empathy and emotional understanding. They argue that the shame felt is an emotion, but they are not 'shamed' by the community.

### *1.9.2 A Relational Ecology*

Morrison and Vaandering (2012) discuss at length their notion that RA emphasise social engagement in the place of social control and contribute to a school's relational ecology. They argue that a relational school exists where: a 'relational culture' is nurtured; behaviour is understood in its social context; and the building of, maintenance of, and where necessary repairing of these relationships is a priority. They see social engagement as the essential element for creating rich and fulfilling school life for all members of the school community. They posit that RA act as mechanisms and tools for supporting relationships and produce relational pedagogy, praxis and discipline (Zehr, 2002; Morrison and Vaandering, 2012). RA contributes to a relational ecology by affecting the language staff use with pupils and other staff; how problems are handled; and, the pedagogy used to deliver content in the classrooms (Hopkins, 2011; Morrison and Vaandering, 2012; Riestenberg, 2012). The overall aim of RA in schools should be create policy and practice that is flexible and more responsive to the needs and concerns of the school community (Morrison, 2007). The idea of a relational ecology will be revisited further

in Chapter Three, specifically focusing on how a relational ecology is created and maintained.

### *1.9.3 Shaming and Bullying*

Morrison (2001a) builds on research that links bullying behaviour with subsequent disruptive behaviour by both the wrong-doer and sufferer, and highlights the long term risk to those who bully and those who have been bullied. Although Morrison's work is on shaming and bullying, it can be successfully adapted to discuss different types of disruptive behaviour. Morrison (2001a) build on Braithwaite's (1989) work on reintegrative shaming and Ahmed *et al*'s (2001) work on shame management. Ahmed *et al* (2001) argue that poorly managed shame can interfere with an individuals internal self-sanctioning, and therefore lead to inconsistent and inappropriate social behaviour. Morrison (2001b) states that social relationships are of the utmost importance, that this is a central tenet of RA, and that reintegrative shaming theory is supportive of this.

### *1.9.4 Social Discipline Window*

McCold and Wachtel (2003) developed a conceptual theory of RJ, strongly based on the conceptual backing of the Social Discipline Window. Wachtel (1999) developed the social discipline window in a way that he claimed had specific and relevant application to educational settings. It is argued that by ensuring that individuals are taking ownership of their action and feel empowered and accountable, collective responsibility and community relationships will be improved. They believe by providing high boundaries but also a highly supportive environment, social capital will be improved. (McCold and Wachtel, 1999; 2001) This is done by moving away from the punitive-permissive continuum (see figure below) where it is believed that if teachers are not being punitive, they are permitting disruptive behaviour (Wachtel, 1999b). The window intends to show that the stronger the relationships in the school, the less likely individuals will act inappropriately. The social discipline window can be used in both reactive and preventative processes and used to build a healthy school community. Wachtel (1999a) built his social discipline window based on research grounded in the organisational management field, and also Baumrind's (1966) work on parenting styles. He argues that Baumrind's use of the word authoritative is the same as a restorative approach. Vaandering (2010) critiques the social discipline window as a theoretical underpinning of RA in education and argues that often teachers who are fully committed to being restorative still have no qualms in acting for pupils and taking decisions away from them. She also argues that the language used in the social

discipline window can cause confusion for educators when juxtaposed against concepts of relationships and people centred practices. The confusion arising from this will be discussed and critiqued in further detail in Chapter 3.



Figure 3: Punitive-Permissive Continuum, Wachtel (1999)

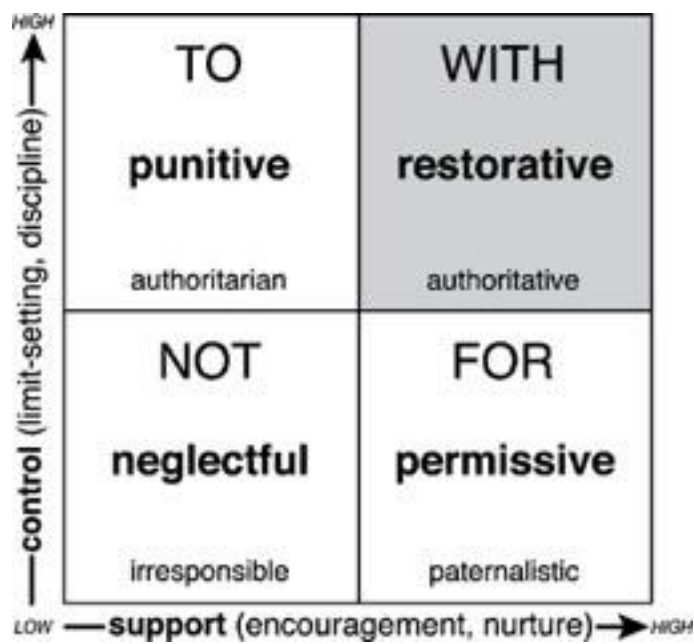


Figure 4: Social Discipline Window, Wachtel (1999)

### 1.10 Summary

RJ is a conceptually complex subject for a number of reasons. The literature is contested on a precise definition which can lead to problems with researching and theorising how RJ works alongside the criminal justice system, or even with more informal types of use. In England and Wales, RJ has been mainly introduced in the youth justice arena, however it has recently been expanded to further aspects of adult justice. RJ has been inconsistently applied amongst various facets of the criminal justice system in England and Wales and as Hoyle states is “*fast becoming the most over-evaluated and under-practiced area of criminal justice*” (Hoyle, 2010, p. 26). Whilst there are challenges and limitations that come with the use of RJ in the UK, evaluations and proponents remain positive. There is a need for further research on implementing RJ consistently and effectively in a variety of settings. The popularity of RJ and its perceived fairness has led to the evolution or extension of RJ as a means of dealing with wrongdoing in organisations such as, the workplace and schools. RJ type practices have been developed to use in various organisations. The current research will be investigating the implementation of RA in schools, therefore this chapter went into some detail on the development of RA in youth settings, and what the use of RA mean in an educational setting. The shift that needs to take place in schools from viewing unacceptable behaviour as breaking the school rules, to viewing it as harmful to relationships is made clear in this chapter. Chapter Two will provide a review of various facets of the school that need to be considered when attempting to implement this shift. Chapter Two provides a review of the ‘school change’ literature, with a view to investigating what kind of issues may arise when trying to implement an initiate like restorative approaches. The notion of the ‘school ecology’ and the various reasons this needs to be considered when implementing change will also be introduced.



## **Chapter Two: The School Ecology, School Culture and Authority in Schools**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The environment created within a school has a major effect on the pupils' day-to-day functioning and learning. In a school, all pupil learning occurs in context and an integral part of this is the interaction between people and the environment. The school ecology is defined as the “*structural, functional, and built aspects, coupled with interpersonal interactions*” of a school (Waters, Cross and Shaw, 2010, p. 1). The ‘school ecology’ is a term used to describe the community of living individuals and structures within the school, and their interactions within the school context. Structural factors can include the physical structures within the school, but also the hierarchy, and the way things work within the school. These factors are highly interdependent, and context is important in understanding any phenomena that occurs within this. Chapter Two essentially explores the different contextual factors that need to be considered when trying to implement change and innovation within any organisation, in this case, the implementation of RA in schools. RJ and RA were discussed in Chapter One, and in particular how RA allows schools a different way of thinking about unacceptable behaviour. Due to this shift in thinking about and dealing with behaviour, the implementation of RA needs to be carefully considered as it could signify a change for the way things are done within a school.

There are several aspects of the school ecology that need to be considered when implementing any kind of change. Initially, the idea of a school culture or climate, how to change this, and barriers to change will be discussed. The chapter will then move onto looking at behaviour management in schools and how teachers approach managing a classroom. Finally, the complex relationship between teaching and authority will be explored. These three main factors are all vital aspects of schooling, and particularly need to be considered when trying to implement a new behavioural management approach into the school context. The three sections chosen are undeniably important throughout educational literature, however, with the exception of school culture they are relatively overlooked in the RA in education literature. Chapter Two will look at these three factors and combine them with the existing RA literature to envisage how RA might affect these vital components of schools.

## 2.2 School culture

Culture has long been notoriously difficult to define throughout the literature. Schein (1992) defines culture as

*“the pattern of basic assumptions that a given groups has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation those problems”* (Schein, 1992, p.9)

A culture provides a group of individuals with a unique way of interpreting the world, and relating to other people. Hofstede (1991) classifies the elements of a culture into four factors: symbols, rituals, values and heroes. Symbols are gestures, objects or words that carry a particular meaning for that culture. Rituals are collective activities that are considered socially essential within a culture and often carried out for their own sake. Values are strong emotions at the core of the culture that guide the rituals, heroes, and symbols. Finally, heroes are characters who are highly prized throughout a culture and serve as models for behaviour. These elements will be shared throughout a specific culture and provide a “*cultural identity*” that has a shared system of symbols and meanings as well as norms for conduct (Collier and Thomas, 1988). These will infiltrate the way the organisation works, and dictate how things are done. An organisational culture is therefore often a concept that describes the “personality” of an organisation. Whilst not all of Hofstede’s (1991) components will be discussed in this thesis, a number of his elements will be used to interpret the culture in the case-study sites. Culture is a widely researched, yet elusive concept often used in discussions about society, organisations, and the way things work.

Every school has a culture and vision and this drives the passion for learning found in effective schools (Wilson, 2008). However, there is no universally agreed upon definition of school culture (Peterson and Deal, 1998). Handy (1981) posits that “*culture cannot be precisely defined for it is something perceived, something felt*” (p.185). However, there are a few definitions that are commonly used. It is an accumulation of the behaviours, symbols, beliefs, feelings, assumptions, expectations, attitudes, norms, values and, shared philosophies and

ideologies that characterise the organisation (Schein, 1992). It has also been described as “*the way things get done around here*” (Deal and Kennedy, 1982, p.4). According to Fullan (2007) a school culture can be defined by looking at the guiding beliefs and values evident in the way the school operates, and encompasses all the attitudes, expected behaviours and values that impact how the school operates. Peterson and Deal (1998) describe the school culture as the stream of norms, values, beliefs, traditions, and rituals built up over time. This creates a set of tacit assumptions that the school community may not be aware of, but are guided by at all times. Introducing change to the community interrupts this pattern of behaviour. Lunenburg (2011, p.2) states that most definitions of school culture feature the following characteristics:

- *observed behavioural regularities that are composed of common language and ceremonies related to demeanour; norms of standards of behaviour that are considered acceptable;*
- *dominant values that are shared by all staff members; a dominant philosophy about how the staff and pupils should be treated;*
- *rules that are followed in order for everyone to get along in the organisation that must be learned by new members;*
- *a climate that is conveyed by the way the members of the organisation interact with each other and outsiders;*
- *the physical layout of the organisation that contributes to a general ‘feel’ of the school.*

These characteristics will guide everything that happens in the organisation, and newcomers will pick up on these cues and adopt them. Often individuals will do things in the organisation just because that is how it is done and not because it is necessarily the best or easiest way. In terms of bringing new initiatives or change into this, the number of factors that contribute to a school culture need to be considered.

The literature on school culture represents a well-grounded, yet conceptually difficult area of research. The word culture has a wide range of varied, yet interrelated meanings. Sargent (2001) proposes that cultures are built and maintained through the everyday business of school life, and various researchers discuss the values, norms, rituals and meanings associated with school culture, however it remains a conceptually ambiguous topic. Often the term culture and school culture are defined in nonspecific, broad terms as previously shown. One of the difficulties lies

in the research widely focusing on both school culture and school climate. School climate and school culture are linked with school performance throughout the literature, and both seen as important markers of effective schools. Van Houtte (2005) called for clarification of the terms school climate and school culture. Whilst often used interchangeably throughout the literature, he purports that their use in school effectiveness research needs to be clarified in order for researchers to more effectively carry out research. Schoen and Teddlie (2008) reasoned that school climate is often used by research that comes from a psychological background, and therefore research is done using psychometric tests and scales. Whereas, school culture research often comes from a more sociological, anthropological background and therefore uses more qualitative methods of obtaining data and analysis. Hoy *et al* (1990) define climate in terms of behaviour in the schools and culture in terms of values and norms that are apparent in the schools. The importance of discussing these nuances is vital as they begin to help interpret a conceptually difficult area of literature and provide insight into the existing research.

When traditional practices and ideas are deeply entrenched in schools, it can be difficult for members of that community to recognise the cultural cues that exist. However, these cues are often more easily noticed by an outsider (Morrison *et al*, 2005). Every member of staff who starts working at a new school will be socialised into the organisation. They will take on their occupational roles and fulfil these by following the cultural cues within the school that mould their ideology and role performance. Initial teacher training will be the first step into the socialisation of staff into the professional norms and values expected of them and they will be further socialised into the school where they take a job. The culture they enter may conflict with their own internalised images of the 'ideal teacher', however often they will adapt to the new school culture. Hopkins *et al* (1994) identified six common cultural meaning and ways in which culture can be observed and researched, these are: observed behavioural regularities; norms; dominant values; philosophy; rules of the game (that newcomers will abide by); and, feeling or climate. Schiffer (1980) and Sarason (1982) believe that a failure to address these issues means that innovations and changes in education will be vastly inhibited. The importance to educators of addressing the school culture in order to promote effective change is an integral part of the literature (Danielson, 2006).

Any type of change that is introduced in to a school is often met with resistance and can be

destined to fail before ever being properly adopted. Hinde (2004) pointed out the necessity of having an in-depth understanding of a schools culture before attempting any kind of change. By failing to take into account the fully encompassing facet of school culture, any kind of school change initiative will fail. It is often thought that this failure comes down to the underpinning philosophy or culture of the school not allowing for change. Teachers are essential actors in clearing the way for and maintaining school change as they are most important factor in determining how efficiently a school works (Randi and Zeichner, 2004; Richardson and Roosevelt, 2004). If teachers are not on board with change, it will not happen. The difficulty in school culture change lies in the community being surrounded and enveloped by the way things are done; every choice they make and action they take is influenced heavily by this culture though they may not necessarily recognise this. Whilst the idea of a culture that affects everything and how to gauge, monitor, measure or change this culture can be daunting and difficult to grasp it as an all pervasive concept; as Donahoe (1997) states “*if culture changes, everything changes*” (p. 245). Defining a certain school culture is a difficult task and research has shown that the culture affects everything in the school from the way the teachers dress (Peterson and Deal, 1998) to how susceptible they are to change (Hargreaves *et al*, 1975). Culture change may therefore be daunting for those who have become part of the culture and accustomed to doing things a certain way. If school staff have become comfortable with the way school works change may seem unnecessary, time-consuming and unhelpful for them.

Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) identified three main areas in the schools where change should focus in order for it to occur more effectively, these are: changes relating to moral purpose, for example a particularly meaningful vision that will invite commitment; changes that relate to improving both the knowledge and skills of school staff; and, changes that relate to how the school is structured and the material time-space-resource economy of the school in its everyday business. Change is best embraced when it will make a clear positive impact on those inside the school community. However, it is important to view change as a process, and not simply an event that occurred that could be measured by a ‘before’ and ‘after’ (Fullan, 1982). A certain amount of flexibility and acceptance of the unexpected is a necessity (Fullan, 1991; 2001; 2003). Due to the complex nature of organisations, change needs to be monitored as an ongoing process of improvement rather than a simple, instantaneous change. An understanding of the school culture is a vital part of this processing as it can work for or against reform, improvement and changes (Barth, 2001). Sergiovanni (2000) argues that

*“Changing a culture requires that people, both individual and collectively, move from something familiar and important into an empty space. And then, once they are in this empty space, they are obliged to build a new set of meaning and norms and a new culture order to fill up the space” (Sergiovanni, 2000, p. 148)*

The importance of culture change being encouraged on both an individual and collective level is apparent. The organisation will have to address larger issues of “how things are done” and also encourage individuals to see the merit of change. For implementation plans, this means a serious consideration of how individual minds will be changed, and how this will lead to a larger culture change. Sergiovanni (2000) highlights the issues of individual and collective change and its importance for meaningful and permanent cultural change. There may be issues at structural levels, in terms of initiating new programmes, however the individuals need to be on board for any change to be meaningful. Chenoweth and Everhart (2002) discuss school changes in teaching and learning in terms of ‘reculturing’ a school. ‘Reculturing’ is achieved by challenging current norms and practices, and reforming them in order to create the best outcomes for both pupils and staff. In order to ‘reculture’ a school change must be seen as beneficial. If change is seen as a benefit and valued by all members of a community, then it is more likely to be implemented in a sustainable manner (Fullan, 1997). Fullan (1997) found that mandating the change process does not in fact improve the likelihood of a positive outcome. Carrying out change in an organisation is highly complex, and individuals will not change simply because they are told to do so. The impact this will have on the implementation of RA needs to be underestimated, as staff cannot simply be told what to do, but also need to see the merit of the use of restorative approaches.

Schools are under pressure to create a culture that empowers staff and pupils and can no longer afford to focus solely on delivering the academic curriculum, due to the changing nature of schooling and levels of pastoral care expected today (Cooke *et al*, 2015; Freestone, 2015). Freestone (2015) argues that whilst pastoral care used to be peripheral to teaching, it is now recognised as the foundation to effective education in order to provide pupils with skills and knowledge to become young adults who can contribute to society meaningfully. One of the fundamental aspects of using RA in schools is the empowerment of both staff and pupils (Hopkins, 2007), and RA provide the change that schools need in order to handle the pastoral and educational side of pupil development. If the school culture is positive the pupils benefit not only academically but socially, as do the school staff. A positive school culture is place with a

*“shared sense of what is important, a shared ethos of caring and concern and a shared commitment to helping pupils learn”* (Peterson and Deal, 1998, p.29). The idea of a positive school culture can be seen to reinforce the values that a whole-school concept of RA inspires and supports. Both a positive school culture and a whole-school approach to restorative practices are mutually supportive. However, the implementation and changing of the school culture that exists that is problematic. Schools with a negative culture are *“places where negativity dominates conversations, interactions, and planning; where the only stories recounted are of failure”* (Peterson and Deal, 1998, p.29). It can be seen that schools with a negative culture may be the ones most in need of a culture change, will also be the schools that could resist it the most.

A large body of research exists that links the terms, ‘school culture’ or ‘school climate’ with school effectiveness and school improvement. In the 1980s and 1990s a considerable amount of educational literature sought to identify the main characteristics and features of schools that work effectively and produce good outcomes. Often these characteristics heavily overlap with ideas of a healthy school culture and climate, and also strong school leadership. The seminal work of Rutter *et al* (1979) identified the main characteristics of schools that work effectively as: a positive school ethos; effective classroom and behaviour management; teachers acting as positive role models; appropriate working conditions for both staff and pupils; pupils given responsibility; shared activities between staff and pupils in order to build healthy relationships; and, high teacher expectations. Along similar lines, Smith and Tomlinson (1990) identified four key characteristics of effective schools, these include: a climate or culture where all members of the school community respect each other; effective leadership and management; positive feedback and treatment of pupils; and, teacher involvement in decisions making that affects the whole-school. In their writing on effective schools, Levine and Lezotte (1990) identified nine main characteristics of schools that were seen as unusually effective. The first of these is a productive school culture and climate. These researchers recognise the importance of an orderly environment and culture to effective schools, however, an orderly environment is associated with positive inter personal relationships, belonging and participation, rather than rules, regulation and control. As one of the most important factors in using RA is the formation of healthy relationships and communities, it could be helpful in creating positive school environments where pupils and staff feel happy and respected. Alongside this literature it can be seen how RA could have a positive impact on schools that successfully implement it, however the problem remains that changing a school culture is often a very difficult task. Effective

cultures in schools are identified by shared visions and goals and a positive learning environment. It can be seen how important both the school culture and climate are to schools that run efficiently, but also how important teachers and school staff are. At the outset of any initiative or change, Hargreaves (1999) argues that an assessment of the school culture and its readiness to the change needs to be carried out, particularly with regards to the school leadership. School change in relation to RA will now be reviewed.

### **2.3 Restorative Approaches and Culture Change**

The RA literature allows a deeper look into the idea of a whole school restorative approach, the implementation of restorative approaches, and the idea of a culture change being necessary for RA to work. This is one of the “school ecology” areas that is discussed throughout the RA literature. Due to the vast amount of school culture literature, and its obvious importance in creating positive or negative schools it is an important factor to consider in terms of implementing restorative approaches. The essence of working restoratively within the school environment is understanding the impact of ones behaviour on others and appreciating the values of ones relationships within the environment, but also repairing relationships when something goes wrong. Necessitating a fundamental shift in the way schools understand unacceptable behaviour; instead of viewing it as a breach of the school rules it needs to be seen as a breach of relationships (Blood, 2005). An alternate line of thinking is required when harm has been caused: instead of ascertaining what should be done now that rules have been broken, the teaching staff need to try to understand what happened, what relationships have been violated, and how the harm can be repaired (Zehr, 1990; Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). A substantial theme throughout the literature is that the introduction of RA signifies a culture change, and it needs to be present in the daily interactions of the community. It is believed that by introducing RA in this way it will have the biggest impact on the climate for learning and behaviour in schools.

Where most schools are seen to fail with the implementation of RA is that they continue to try and use RA alongside more traditional punishment methods. When RA appear not to make any difference or are seen as too time consuming, they are discarded alongside other unsupported behavioural management tools. Whilst it will not be easy to try and change the culture of a school, it is believed the implementation of RA will fall short without it (Cowie *et al*, 2008). McCluskey *et al* (2008b) found that one of the biggest barriers to implementation for RA in



schools would be the “*taken for granted*” structures and systems of behaviour management within schools (p.413). From their work on the theoretical backgrounds to restorative approaches, Wachtel and McCold (2001) created a framework to show the shift necessary in order for a school to become fully restorative. The Social Control Window is a useful way of articulating a large proportion of what the research projects aims to explore, the movement of the staff from the punitive, negligent, or permissive window into the restorative window. The essence of the restorative approach is working with pupils by creating a balance between caring, nurturing and supporting, but also discipline (in the sense of structure and boundaries) and control. Working restoratively means working with pupils whereas often school are seen to be doing things for them, to them, or not doing them at all. Their hypothesis maintains that being restorative, participatory, and engaging more effective than being neglectful, permissive or punitive.

There is an emphasis on the importance of shifting the mindsets of staff away from punishment to an approach built on creating and sustaining positive relationships within the school communities (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001). In order to shift staff mindsets towards a restorative way of thinking there needs to be a broad understanding of the meaning of working in a restorative context and implications this has for the staff and the way the school is run. Moving away from a punitive role requires a change in the staffs’ ‘heart’s and mind’s’ with regards to discipline and its purpose and practice within the school (Blood and Thorsborne, 2006). McCluskey *et al* (2011) believe this reluctance to let go of the opinion to exclude and punish relates to the fact that “*punishment is an essential symbol of power and teacher strength*” (p.112). In schools where RA have been introduced, the emphasis is often still on reactive approaches to wrong-doing. It is argued that if RA are introduced throughout the whole-school with an aim to develop a range of relational practices then the reactive processes will not be needed as often (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). To shift people away from a more traditional way of thinking about school discipline, it is necessary to show them that a new way is more effective, and also give them confidence using a new way of dealing with issues. A shift like this can be difficult as it can challenge deeply entrenched beliefs around discipline, authority and punishment in the classrooms that the teachers will have developed from their own school experience, teacher training, and all previous experience in classrooms.

Haber and Sakade (2009) found that globally schools are predominantly authoritarian organisations where notions of control and compliance are fundamentally resistant to change.

The challenging of these beliefs and notions is the beginning of true change throughout the school (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). Challenging both individual beliefs and cultural beliefs is vital for the sustained use of restorative approaches. In their research on RA in schools, Gregory *et al* (2014) were unable to find why some teachers use RA more than others. This may be down to ideological differences between the schools and members of staff (McCluskey *et al*, 2011), and this will be explored more in the thesis. One of the main indicators of a successful transition to using RA throughout the school is the realisation that it means a change in the way the school is organised and run even if the changes have not fully happened yet. Karp and Breslin (2001) found, that due to the resistance that RA implementations often encounter within the school community, the schools:

*“either develop arbitrary policies that distinguish what kinds of offences can be diverted to the RJ practices, coexist by having pupils proceed through both systems simultaneously, or seek to implement restorative practices after the punitive processes have done their work”* (Karp and Breslin, 2001, p. 253)

As a result of this the reactive processes in RA are often well used, however proactive RA are more difficult to implement, especially in schools where punitive processes are still the norm. By expecting pupils to proceed through both systems simultaneously or after they have been punished shows a fundamental misunderstanding of RA and the values and principles underpinning them. Schoenecker (2012) warns against this fusion of retributive and RA as it makes it harder to accomplish a restorative community and restorative goals. However, in the RA in Schools project, RA existed alongside more traditional disciplinary measures, especially when RA had been implemented in small parts of the school, where they appeared to work well (Skinns *et al*, 1999). There is a lack of clarity surrounding how to best implement RA and whether a full culture change should be immediately sought, or whether it is best to introduce RA in different ‘pockets’ of the schools. When trying to change a culture without a proper implementation plan that fully informs all members of the school community, the risk is that the changes will simply seem too daunting. The literature review shows why a school culture may provide difficulty in school reform and change. The culture of a school effects everything that the school does and if this is negative or punitive then RA will be at odds with it. Chapter Two will now move on to look more closely at parts of school culture, namely how they deal with behaviour in schools and authority relationships in schools.

## 2.4 Behaviour in Schools

By looking initially at the school culture it can be seen that culture will inform many of the ways that pupils behave, and also how teachers react to this. The link between behaviour management and pupil behaviour in schools is clearly visible throughout the educational literature. It is important to look at behaviour in schools and how it is managed effectively or ineffectively as it places the research into a wider context and addresses the climate that RA is being implemented in. A number of studies from the USA have positively linked school climate and pupil behaviour (Chen, 2007; LeBlanc *et al*, 2007). In schools where the climate is peaceful and respectful and the primary focus is learning, good behaviour is promoted because pupils are encouraged to learn and build their own self-discipline, similar to a RA. The importance of a healthy school culture or climate is apparent throughout the behaviour management literature and ties in with many issues such as school management, teacher stress and burnout, teacher self-efficacy, and pupil engagement. There is a vast amount of literature on classroom and behaviour management as it is seen as a vital component of teachers' jobs, not just for pupil welfare but for the teachers own job satisfaction. Often the main focus of this research is understanding the main causes of disruptive behaviour, then developing strategies to help teachers minimise these (Porter, 2000). Whilst the definition of behaviour management varies throughout the literature, Emmer and Stough (2001) argue that generally it refers to actions taken by the teacher in order to create an ordered classroom environment where pupils can engage and therefore learn.

There is a divide in the RA literature, where schools often either see RA as another behavioural management tool or a broader, more complete change that should infiltrate the way the whole school works. It is important to discuss behaviour management in order to see how things are being done in classrooms, as this contributes to the overall school culture, but also highlights what works in classroom management. By taking concepts from the behaviour management literature, the important components of RA can be addressed. Influencing the change processes using these links may facilitate engagement with the implementation of restorative approaches. A certain amount of good order is essential for schools to function well and for pupils to fulfil their learning potential, and poor classroom management and pupil behaviour has a wide-ranging effect on both school staff and pupils. Miller (2003) argues that literature and ideas surrounding teachers and behaviour management present a 'large and untidy' set of issues ranging from

authority and control, justice and fairness, rationality and emotion, the professionalisation of teachers, and the persisting influence of our own personal experience and recollection. Authority and control are largely under-theorised in educational literature and this will be discussed further detail. Three main issues that are prominent throughout behaviour management literature: high quality schools promote a good learning environment and therefore good behaviour; a positive school climate is one where respectful, peaceful relationships are formed; and, it is detrimental to both teachers and pupils to work in stressful conditions that they cannot manage. The need for effective classroom and behaviour management is vital for contributing towards a healthy school culture, and positive interpersonal relationships between the school community.

The Department for Education (2007) found behaviour management was the biggest challenge they face in teaching and directly affects morale, confidence and happiness. Teachers also rejected the idea of a 'one size fits all' approach to classroom management and maintaining discipline, and believed that what drives the response to any disruptive behaviour should address the underlying cause of the behaviour. Ingersoll (2004) questioned how much actual power teachers have to deal with bad behaviour in the classroom, due to the hierarchical nature of discipline systems in schools. It is argued that teachers have the power to 'manage' what happens in the classroom but have no powers to manage any processes beyond this. Restorative approaches, particularly more formal conferencing and processes, would potentially give the teachers a greater input into pupil behaviour as restorative conferencing would allow for both teachers and pupils to be heard, understood, and eventually come to a conclusion that is suitable for everyone. If RA are introduced throughout all aspects of school life, it may involve the pupils further in self-governance, and therefore contrast with the hierarchical nature of schooling.

In the 1980s Lord Elton commissioned his landmark report on managing and understanding challenging behaviour in schools in Great Britain due to an increasing concern that behaviour in schools was getting worse. Whilst Lord Elton's (1989) report is relatively old now, Steer (2005) confirmed that many of the conclusions and suggestions that Lord Elton came to are still of importance and relevant to schooling today. Challenging and disruptive behaviour occurs on a daily basis within a school, with minor disruptions and irritations disrupting teaching in a large number of classrooms, in a way that teachers describe as 'wearing' (Elton, 1989). Pupils also find bad behaviour a reoccurring irritation and distraction in their day to day schooling (Chamberlain *et al*, 2010; DfES, 2003). Bradshaw *et al* (2010) found that around a third of pupils felt that there was disruption in nearly all of their lessons that hindered their learning. The literature indicates

that low- level disruption is the most common form of pupil misbehaviour (Munn *et al*, 2007; Hallam and Rogers, 2008) and it is believed that poor behaviour can lead to a loss of 30 minutes of teaching time per day due to the time teachers need to take to deal with misbehaviour (DfE 2007). This provides a rationale for changing, or at least considering in depth, the way that classroom management and unacceptable pupil behaviour is dealt with in schools.

Evertson and Harris (1999) state that the meaning of classroom management has evolved through time and the literature and has “*changed from describing discipline practices and behavioural interventions to serving as a more holistic descriptor of teachers’ actions in orchestrating supportive learning environments and building community*” (p.60). Larrivee (2005) adds to this by noting that “*classroom management is a critical ingredient in the three-way mix of effective teaching strategies, which includes meaningful content, powerful teaching strategies, and an organisational structure to support productive learning*” (p. vi). Linking in with this is the idea of creating a school ecology that effectively helps to reduce misbehaviour and increase engagement in pupils and staff. The literature suggests that classroom management is based on a complex set of skills that extend beyond just the need to influence and control pupil behaviour, to the need to create a classroom that is supportive to all types of learning and individuals. Other *et al* (2010) argue that classroom management initiatives that show promise are ones that integrate into the daily instructional practices and school life, and not stand alone measures. RA may help to create a classroom that provides this supportive atmosphere by not only providing reactive processes when something goes wrong, but also by providing proactive processes that are aimed at developing and maintaining relationships and empowering pupils to take responsibility for their learning and actions. In turn this may create a supportive, relational school ecology that proactively works to support pupils and staff. Historically throughout the literature the issue of unacceptable pupil behaviour has been dealt with in two very different ways, these being either: concerned with the idea of classroom management and school processes as a product of teaching and teacher control or in terms of ‘problem children’ and how best deal with them. This thesis focuses on the former of the two, with interest in the processes that occur within the case study sites.

Scarlett *et al* (2009) argue the need to get beyond slogans and jargon used in research and by the government, and beyond the methods prescribed. They believe classroom management approaches and methods should be explored. Methods will be things such as counting down

when a class is being disruptive, positive reinforcement, and using disciplinary procedures such as lines or detention. Their argument for this is that approaches are entwined with meanings, values and assumptions and not simply just methods of dealing with misbehaviour. Simply put Scarlett *et al* (2009) argue that in order to understand why a teacher uses a certain method (that may or may not work) it is vital to understand their approach and their personal understandings of what education should be about. Approaches are then concepts defined by three major core concepts: meanings given to core concepts: values and value hierarchies; and, assumptions about what makes for effective behaviour and classroom management. In order for RA to be used successfully within schools, it may be necessary to change their approaches to behaviour and not simply their methods used in order to deal with it. This could entail teaching staff a “restorative mindset” and ensuring that they think about misbehaviour in restorative terms and how it damages relationships. If staff are only being taught the methods used, they may continue to work from a more punitive mindset which takes away some of the value of the restorative processes.

Skiba and Peterson (2003) state that the way in which teachers attempt to discipline pupils is often influenced by their ideas surrounding how pupils learn, grow and develop. Classroom management literature often places discipline on a continuum from behaviouristic (the belief that humans by nature need high control) and humanistic on the other end (humans are good and need to be guided). Teachers beliefs about pupils will fall somewhere on this continuum and how they deal with classroom management and discipline will be greatly influenced by this. Willower *et al* (1967) developed the Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) scale that conceptualises the PCI of teachers along a scale, from humanistic to custodial. On the custodial side of the scale, control is salient throughout the school and maintenance of an orderly environment is the primary concern of teachers. No attempts are made to understand the behaviour of pupils, rather they view behaviour in personal terms and see it as a personal attack. The school is viewed as an autocratic organisation with a rigid pupil-status hierarchy (Hoy, 2001). On the humanistic side of the scale, the school is viewed as a learning community where all members collectively learn by interaction and experience. Relationships are important in the humanistic school, with friendly, warm relationships between all members of the community. The school is viewed as a democratic organisation, where members should be willing to take responsibility for their own actions and the consequences of these (Hoy, 2001). These two orientations are ideological extremes, and most schools will sit somewhere in the middle. Willower *et al* (1967) developed

the PCI because they saw such differences in orientations in a number of schools. The humanistic side of the scale is closely linked to a restorative approach with its emphasis on relationships and taking responsibility for one's actions. A school may develop either humanistic or custodial tendencies due to its teachers' ideas about the purpose of education and how pupils learn. The PCI is utilised as a part of the methodology of the current research.

#### 2.4.1 Engagement

Yang (2009) argues that all classes for better or for worse foster some degree of youth (dis)engagement and this is important for classroom management. Engagement is an interaction between the pupils engaging with the work but also the teachers engaging the pupils. Yang (2009) sees structure and engagement as the interactive bases of any classroom. Structure refers to the actions and activities that are expected of pupils, for example, tasks and tests. It is theorised that to some extent all teachers engage and structure the pupils' experience within their classroom. The link between teaching quality (the level to which teachers engage pupils) and pupil behaviour is particularly evident in the skill with which the teacher uses the work to keep pupils engaged (HoCEE, 2011). It is argued that the active engagement of pupils by teachers in learning tasks that they can observe is an important way of maintaining good behaviour "*if pupils are actively engaged in instruction then it is difficult to engage in incompatible behaviour*" (Simonsen *et al*, 2008, p. 359). For this reason engagement is a very important part in creating and maintaining a pleasant and productive classroom environment that provides an ideal environment for learning. High levels of pupil engagement are linked with motivation to learn, high efforts in the classroom, higher levels of attentiveness, and higher levels of participation in class discussions (Fredricks *et al*, 2004; Marks, 2000). Effective learning is therefore hinged on how engaged pupils are with classroom activities (Chen, 2005). Pianta *et al* (2012) state that the quality and nature of relationships between pupils and teachers are fundamental to understanding pupil engagement. This is because pupil-teacher relationships will either produce or inhibit change in the pupil that will motivate them to learn and engage with schooling (or not). Marsh (2012) also found that a positive pupil-teacher relationship fostered greater motivation and engagement amongst pupils. It could be argued that if RA successfully improve relationships within a school, the benefits from this will include greater pupil engagement. These factors combine to create a more engaged, relational school ecology that could potentially foster deeper feelings of connection and proactively work to reduce behavioural issues.

## 2.5 What works in classroom management?

Effective classroom management practices by teachers have a significant, positive impact on pupil behaviour (Oliver *et al*, 2011). The development of a whole-school behaviour plan is recommended by many educational researchers as this is seen as the most successful way of consistently ensuring good behaviour (Cowley, 2001; Chaplain, 2003). There is a recommendation that this behaviour plan entails a clear set of rules, regulations, and consequences if these are not followed for the pupils and staff in the school (Radford, 2000). Throughout the literature there is often a distinction made between proactive and reactive approaches to managing behaviour in the classroom (Wilks, 1996). Proactive approaches aim to create a climate that prevents or deters disruptive behaviour, and reactive approaches entail how best to deal with bad behaviour after it has happened. Thomas *et al* (2011) argued that effective classroom management alone may not be enough to dramatically reduce disruptive behaviour in classrooms, and that additional school wide approaches that encourage pro-social norms act as an additional way of managing pupil behaviour. Using a combination of both proactive and reactive approaches creates a climate where pupils have clear expectations placed on them and are supported to meet these, but pupils also know the consequences of not meeting these expectations (Skiba and Peterson, 2003; Scott *et al*, 2012). This is what RA aims to achieve when being implemented on a “whole-school level”.

A whole-school implementation of RA means that staff must not just have the skills to carry out the reactive restorative processes, but embed them within a restorative culture that informs the daily life of the school (Hopkins, 2004). A whole-school restorative approach will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Three. Whilst effective behaviour management on a whole school level is believed to have a positive effect on teacher self-efficacy, confidence levels and engagement (Goddard and Goddard, 2001); some research argues that proactive strategies are the most effective in preventing misbehaviour as they deal with the causes of misbehaviour (Herrera and Little, 2005; Wilks, 1996). Research also highlights that pupils react better to behaviour policies that are clear, consistent and are perceived as fair for all members of the community (Welsh *et al*, 2000, cited in Chen, 2007). It is clear that rules and discipline need to be used at both a school-wide and classroom level, and both should be reinforced in order to ensure good behaviour (Scott *et al*, 2012). The behaviour policy in schools should be developed in consensus with all the staff, and schools should provide ongoing training and support in order for teachers to meet the schools behaviour policies and provide the best learning environment they can (Cowie *et al*, 2003;



Becker *et al*, 2004).

Roache and Lewis (2011) argue that in order to be effective, classroom management needs to contain punishments and rewards, and also not undermine the teacher-pupil relationship. A reoccurring theme in the literature is using a combination of approaches in order to provide the most effective classroom management. These include: creating high-quality teacher pupil relationships (Marzano and Marzano, 2003); ensuring rules and expectations are clear and known by all members of the community (Swinson and Knight, 2007); providing clear structure in order for pupils to engage in classroom activities; and, the reinforcement of positive behaviour alongside consequences for negative behaviour (Thomas *et al*, 2011). Similar to Wachtel's (2000) social discipline window proposal, Gregory *et al* (2011) believe that an authoritative approach, where both structure and support are provided for pupils, is the most effective way of managing pupil behaviour. Similarly, Marzano (2003) carried out a meta-analysis on various classroom management studies and concluded that the teacher-pupil relationship was the integral factor in any classroom management technique. As relationships are an essential facet of restorative approaches, using RA as a classroom management technique may prove useful. However, changing the way that teachers deal with misbehaviour and how the school is run can potentially prove stressful for school staff.

The Elton Committee (1989) found that a common belief amongst teachers was that good classroom management is a 'gift' that you were either born with or not, however the report eventually disagreed with this saying that

*"First that teachers' group management skills are probably the single most important factor in achieving good standards of classroom behaviour. Second, that those skills can be taught and learned. Third, that practical training provision in this area is inadequate"*  
(DES, 1989: p. 70)

Elton (1989) did acknowledge that *"bad behaviour in schools is a complex problem which does not lend itself to simple solutions"*(p.70). The core message of Lord Elton's report was that a whole school approach to promoting good behaviour, based on forming meaningful relationships between all members of the school community, is key. Even though Elton's (1989) report is relatively old now, it remains an important resource on how best to deal with disruption in

schools. The idea of good classroom management as being a ‘gift’ has led to research being carried out on what characteristics create a “good” or “bad” teacher. This is an important area of enquiry as knowing what pupils react well to provides a good basis for solid behaviour management.

Pomeroy (1999) highlighted the emergence of a body of literature that allows us to ascertain what interactions pupils find helpful and unhelpful with teachers, and what personal characteristics in teachers’ pupils prefer. It was found that it is undesirable interactions and personal qualities of teachers that stand out in pupils minds. Pupils noted shouting and public humiliation as one of the most negative interactions that they experience with teachers (Woods, 1990; Chaplain, 1996; John, 1996; Rudduck *et al*, 1996). Sarcasm, telling pupils to ‘shut-up’, antagonising pupils and putting the pupils down were also seen as negative interactions by the pupils who claimed this type of behaviour and classroom dynamic made them feel they were not valued as pupils, or liked as individuals (Pomeroy, 1999). One of the main grievances of pupils was that they felt as though teachers did not listen to them and did not care what they had to say (Pomeroy, 1999). Of the desirable qualities that pupils wanted teachers to possess, the ability to establish, foster and maintain positive relationships with the pupils and class was seen as the most important (Pomeroy, 1999). Macleod *et al* (2012) note that good teaching requires a certain amount of dialogue, understanding and reciprocal communication between pupils and teachers, and that pupils naturally respond to this type of personal authority that comes from having commendable character traits. Macleod *et al* (2012) argue that more empirical research needs to be carried out on the character of individual teachers and how this relates to “good teaching”. Skiba and Peterson (2003) agree with the use of discipline as an educational principle. Johnstone and Munn (1992) found that whether behaviour is viewed as disruptive or not by a teacher is very context specific and can come down to varying factors such as the time of the year or day, the teachers mood, the subject matter being taught, and previous lessons and relationships with certain pupils. Activities between pupils and staff that facilitate learning relationships within the school are seen as the most important, and the best prevention of difficult behaviour (Ormrod, 2003).

There is a keen interest from the government in behaviour management due to the prevalence of teacher stress and burnout linked with poor behaviour in classrooms. The House of Commons Education committee (2011) found evidence that the reputation of classroom behaviour and the worsening of school communities is seen as a deterrent for individuals considering becoming

teachers. Creating school environments where staff feel supported and confident in their jobs and behaviour management techniques is therefore very important. It was found that undergraduates considering teaching were most dissuaded by “*feeling unsafe in the classroom*” (HoCECC, 2011, p.13). The Department of Education (DoE) (2011) stated that it aims to ‘unequivocally restore adult authority to the classroom’; implying a certain loss of authority in classrooms. However, it is argued that current Department of Education policy and rhetoric regarding loss of authority in schools may only refer to the loss of certain types of authority that were tenuous to begin with, and in order to fully understand the authority dynamic in the classroom more research needs to be done on the personal authority typology (Macleod *et al*, 2012). It is important to consider this as it gives an idea of the national context that RA is being introduced into schools in. If the Department for Education is trying to increase teacher authority, this may initially seem fundamentally at odds with using a more restorative approach. Macleod *et al* (2012) question the assumptions that are being made by the Department for Education with regards to the nature of teacher authority in the classroom and whether it is something teachers ever had, something they have lost, and whether it is something that’s necessarily a desirable trait for teachers to have. Difficulty in managing behaviour can potentially be very stressful for staff, and this will be explored in the next section.

## **2.6 Teacher Efficacy and Burnout**

Teaching is considered a highly stressful career due to the numerous responsibilities and typical array of jobs in any classroom (Jepson and Forrest, 2006). There are many factors that affect teacher stress and feeling unable to successfully do their jobs due to time or behavioural factors are a few of these. Introducing new behavioural management techniques, or utilising old behaviour management techniques that do not work effectively may cause teachers to become highly stressed and potentially affect their capacity to teach. It is important to review teacher efficacy and burnout as these relate to teachers’ potential to implement change, but also to deal with change. Teacher efficacy relates to the extent to which they feel as though they have the capacity to affect pupil performance (Brouwers and Tomic, 2000) and manage pupil behaviour (Chaplain, 2003). It requires belief on the part of the teacher that they can have some kind of influence on the way pupils are in school, even the difficult or hard to teach pupils. If a teacher has low efficacy then they may feel less able to have an impact on pupil behaviour in the classroom, which will then increase stress levels. Exploring low teacher efficacy is important for the current research as behavioural management should ensure that teachers feel able to do their job effectively, and it is important for schools to be aware of what can happen if teachers do n’t

feel this.

Teacher efficacy is a topic that has several important factors associated with it. Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) found that overall school effectiveness and the health of a school of organisation was closely linked with teacher efficacy. Pupil factors that are thought to be related to teacher efficacy are pupil achievement and motivation (Bergman *et al*, 1977; Moore and Esselman, 1992) and pupil self esteem and prosocial attitudes (Borton, 1991; Cheung and Cheng, 1997). Fuchs *et al* (1992) also interestingly found that teacher self-efficacy was related to how well teachers adopted new innovations and teaching and also the success of different program implementations in the school. Woolfolk *et al* (1990) found that teachers classroom management strategies were also affected by their self-efficacy. Teachers who have lower self-efficacy are more likely to experience severe stress, burnout, and are more likely to drop out of the teaching profession (Brissie *et al*, 1988; Glickman and Tamashiro, 1982; Brouwers and Tomic, 2000). In the White Paper ‘The Importance of Teaching’ (2010) the quality of teachers within a school is acknowledged as the biggest factor in effective schools. There was a recognition that stress led to poor teaching and classroom management. It was also reported that pupils lack of respect towards teachers was one of the main causes of this stress. In order to counter balance this it was decided that the authority of teachers would be increased. However, it remains unclear as to whether this offers a solution.

Tschannen-Moran *et al* (1998) proposed a model that reflects a cyclical model of teacher efficacy, where a lower level of teacher efficacy leads to lower levels of effort and persistence, which in turn leads to a deterioration in performance, which then leads to lower levels of efficacy. They discuss the importance of self-efficacy and giving teachers the encouragement and tools they needs to feel as though they have the capacity to do their job as well as they can. Brouwers and Tomic (1998) noted that this is especially apparent when it comes to pupil misbehaviour and disruption, that if not dealt with properly leads to lower teacher efficacy and then eventually can lead to teacher burnout. The concept of teacher burnout in education needs to be carefully considered in this context as it is seen as an outcome of excessive stress placed on teachers. The strenuous demands placed on teachers mean that investigating the causes and possible preventative measures of burnout is highly important. Burnout is described as

*“a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other*

*people in some capacity. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources. Depersonalisation refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to other people, who are usual the recipient of one's services or care"* (Maslach, 1993, pp. 20).

Problems with pupil behaviour are often cited as one of the causes of burnout, alongside workload and time management (Bousquet, 2012; Skaalvik and Skallvik, 2010). Teacher burnout has been associated with: poor health in teachers; high levels of staff leaving the profession; and high numbers of staff on leave (Jepson and Forrest, 2006; Margolis and Nagel, 2006). Stress and burnout directly affect a teacher's performance and their ability to deal with classroom management (Margolis and Nagel, 2006). Chaplain (2003) raised concerns about how disruptive classroom behaviour has a negative effect on both the teacher and other pupils. Santavirta *et al* (2007) argues that the stress caused by this can then detriment a teachers ability to perform properly, and have negative implications for the school community. If a teacher struggles to manage a classroom due to stress, and does not deal with behavioural incidents, this can lead to pupils feeling unsafe and insecure, which then proves cyclical in nature as it may affect their behaviour too (Chaplain, 2003). Klassen and Anderson (2009) investigated job satisfaction among secondary school teachers, contrasting it to previous similar research that had been carried out (Rudd and Wiseman, 1962, in Klassen and Anderson, 2009). They found that job satisfaction was much lower in 2009, mainly due to stress and the pressures of teaching. Barton (2004) and Barmby and Coe (2004) both found that in teachers who had recently left teaching, poor pupil behaviour was one of the most common reasons for leaving.

Jepson and Forrest (2006) highlight that for everyone's benefit it is necessary that teachers function in a stress free working environment. It can be seen from the literature that the management of teacher stress, particularly in terms of behaviour and classroom management should be a priority for policy-makers, local authorities, school management and school staff. When classroom relationships do breakdown or become strained, it imperative that teachers are provided appropriate support to enable stress-free teaching and regenerate the learning environment (Cowley, 2011; Chaplain, 2003). It is important to explore this as to some extent it justifies the use of a system like restorative approaches, and the culture that RA inspires in the school may help to counteract teacher stress and therefore increase teacher efficacy. However, without exploring these concepts and where difficulty lies in the implementation of RA then

culture change may be difficult to initiate. Whilst change may cause stress in the short term, the successful implementation of a behavioural management technique will create a positive classroom environment and potentially alleviate stress that is related to difficult behaviour.

## **2.7 Teacher Authority**

One of the surprisingly under-theorised issues that is apparent throughout literature on school culture and behaviour management is that of the authority relationships between teachers and pupils. Distinguishing how teachers gain authority in the classroom and what this actually means is a necessary part of behaviour management and should be considered when implementing any kind of behavioural reform. It can be seen that the relationships that form in the school help contribute to the culture, and this then affects how individual teachers deal with behaviour management, but none of this would happen without the initial authority relationship. Discussing and researching the role of teacher authority in the classroom is essential to understanding what happens in classrooms, and how to effectively manage a classroom (Macleod *et al*, 2012). Without addressing the teacher-pupil authority relationship directly, it is difficult to accurately research any behavioural and classroom management strategies (Macleod *et al*, 2012). The fundamental role of authority in teaching and schooling cannot be ignored (Pace and Hemmings, 2007). Learning, teaching and behaviour are seen as inextricably linked in schools and it is important to look beyond the issues of the individual child (although these are important too), and look at the overall impact of the learning environment on pupils.

Authority, behaviour and classroom management represents a complex body of literature from various disciplines including education, psychology, criminology and sociology. This section will explore literature in order to provide a relevant look at literature surrounding authority and teachers, some of the issues surrounding discipline and punishment, and classroom management. The research does not attempt to arbitrate these complex concepts, rather to try and conceptualise authority within the large amount of behaviour management literature. The relationship between RA and authority later is thus explored later in the research, and brings individuals teachers more into view when looking at the implementation. Pace and Hemmings (2007) argue that in order to gain a better understanding of classroom authority, it is vital to incorporate knowledge from social theory, educational ideology, and empirical qualitative studies of schooling. They argue that by using these three separate components to understand classroom authority, we gain a

greater understanding of authority in classrooms and how it is constructed and shaped.

Metz (1978) combined the work of many theorists to develop the following definition of authority:

*“Authority is distinguished... by the superior’s right to command and subordinate’s duty to obey. This right and duty stem from the crucial fact that interacting persons share a relationship which exists for the service of a moral order to which both owe allegiance. This moral order may be as diffuse as the way of life of a traditional society or as specific as the pragmatic goals of a manufacturing organisation. But in any case, all participants have a duty to help realise the moral order through their actions.” (Metz, 1978, p.26).*

The need for classroom authority relations that promote learning vitally need to be understood, and seen as essential for a good educational system. Whilst some argue that a teachers’ authority is something inherent in the teaching role, there are those who believe that teacher’s authority is a construction. These different constructions of teacher authority are of interest in the current research. Buzzelli and Johnston (2002) saw teacher authority as the teachers’ possession of the knowledge needed by the pupils in order to succeed in school and this touches on the idea of pedagogical authority that will be discussed later in the section. They conceptualised that teachers were at odds between promoting classroom and group wellbeing by trying to create an atmosphere that encourages learning and by trying to nurture individual growth and freedom for each individual pupil. They argued that teachers use “soft power” (Barber, 1995) in order to try and strike the balance between the individual and the classroom. It is important to mention that there is a vast range of philosophical discussions of authority, however in order to maintain focus the theories of authority that notably relate to teaching will be discussed.

## 2.8 Authority and its conceptualisations

Traditionally, school order has been maintained through the enforcement of school rules and punishment as an outcome if the rules are not followed. Schools have often opted for “*a quasi-judicial approach to the management of pupil misconduct, modelled on existing western criminal justice systems*” (Thorsborne and Vinegrad, 2003, p.8). There has been a distinct shift in the ideas surrounding pupil control in schools, whereas once pupils were expected to unquestioningly follow teacher instructions in order to be disciplined, it is now often intended to help promote self-discipline in pupils often through school-wide behavioural support initiatives and therefore equip pupils with self-discipline that they will use over the course of their life. Authority is a poorly understood, yet fundamental part of classroom life. The word authority also continues to be poorly understood and often portrays negative connotations. It can often be likened to heavy-handed punishment and oppression. This tumultuous relationship with ‘authority’ further deepens when it is examined within a school context where teachers are expected to impose social controls on a classroom whilst encouraging them to become individual, well-rounded pupils (Franklin, 1986). The notion of authority with regards to school discipline is often synonymous with control. In social theory, Hearn (2012) mentions that often the concept of power is interpreted with entirely negative connotations and seen as the same as domination, whereas power does not necessarily have to carry these negative connotations. However, the concept of authority is enduringly linked with ideas of what a classroom should be like (Giroux and MacLaren, 1986). Although classroom dynamics relating to power have been well researched, the authority dynamic does not often come into this (Rudduck and Flutter, 2000). It is argued that the concepts of domination, authority and legitimacy are required in order to be able to look at power dynamics in depth (Hearn, 2012). Macleod *et al* (2012) argue that the apparent discomfort of educationalists in dealing with the concept of authority in the classroom (with the exception of considering the breakdown of authority) stems from a misinformed connection with power and control.

Contemporary research on discipline in classrooms tends to either focus on ‘indiscipline’ in classrooms and whether it is becoming more relevant (Munn *et al.*, 2013), or on assessing specific behavioural interventions, such as restorative approaches. These interventions, like the one being looked at in the current research, are aimed at promoting a climate where indiscipline



is less likely to occur, but the authority relationship between pupils and teachers is not addressed directly. The pupil-teacher authority relationship is still important in these situations, and if it is not understood it hinders the implementation of future behavioural, classroom and whole-school management strategies. Macleod *et al* (2012) discuss how authority is conceptualised as a negative tenet in schools as it is interweaved with notions of power and domination and is construed in entirely negative terms when in actual fact authority is just a characteristic that people have with varying degrees. It is stated that *“authority is not the one-dimensional concept that a reading of education policy and professional literature might imply; it is a multi-dimensional concept that encompasses a range of different forms”* (Macleod *et al*, 2012, p. 494). Simply put, authority is either simply the right to exercise power which can be gained through various channels, some positive and some negative, or by being an expert in a particular subject. This section will explore various conceptualisations of authority within the classroom context.

In educational philosophy there are two strands of thought based on teacher authority in the classroom. The first focuses on rules and the importance of obedience and rule-following. The second suggests that discipline is fostered when pupils enjoy and pursue their individual interests. The first strand emphasises the need for control in order to produce well behaved pupils, whereas the second emphasises the need for pupils to develop self-discipline in order to engage with work and therefore produce less behavioural difficulties. Clark (1998) sums up the difference between ‘order by control’ and ‘order by discipline’:

*“Controlled children believe in the external value of the directions of the controller at least sufficient to follow them. Disciplined children, on the other hand, observe the internal value of the activities that they are engaged in because they subscribe to them”* (Clark, 1998, p. 295).

Although not all behaviour management techniques, formal or not, will directly fit into one of Clark’s categories it is interesting to see the different techniques that can fit into either ‘control by order’ or ‘control by discipline’. RA would be firmly in the control by discipline as it focuses on the pupils taking responsibility for and learning from their actions, and on members of the school viewing it as a community where relationships are important.

Discipline is possibly the single most common worry amongst new teachers and trainee teachers

(Yang, 2009). Yang (2009) comments on the fact that although classroom discipline commands weight in everything to do with schooling, it is highly under-theorised. Teaching is a profession that requires each individual teacher to be responsive and reflexive to new needs and demands placed on them by changing curricula. Discipline is often seen as a taboo subject that is associated with authoritarianism and repression, however this is not always the case. Discipline can have a place in a pupil-centred classroom and a holistic school. The development of self-discipline in pupils should be a priority for schools. Discipline like this is not characterised by repression but by developing certain skills in pupils that will enable them to practice self-discipline over the course of their life (Yang, 2009). It is broadly recognised that in order to deliver excellent teaching, teachers need to be able to meet pupils' intellectual and social needs (Walker, 2009). Teachers feel as though their roles are increasingly becoming more complex and multifaceted to accommodate modern teaching and a more holistic and individualistic way of viewing the classroom (DfE, 2010). They also felt that they had to split their time between three separate roles: guide and mentor, educator, and employee. Teachers stated that behaviour management is one of the biggest challenges that faces teachers today and has a direct effect on their morale, confidence and happiness (DfE, 2010). Again, the literature shows schools may benefit from changes that accommodate proactive and reactive school-wide techniques that encourage everyone to be accountable for their own actions.

The idea that teachers' authority is under threat and that indiscipline in schools is a growing, worsening problem is not a new worry (Munn *et al.*, 1998). However, there has been in recent years a shift towards different ways of dealing with perceived indiscipline (such as RA and a rights based approach) and this can be misconceived as a loss of authority for teachers due to the shift in relationships between the teacher and pupil. The national context that RA is being implemented into can be seen here, and it can be seen how confusion can arise in terms of RA being used but then also teachers being told to regain their 'lost authority'. Macleod *et al.* (2012) argue that a broader theorisation of this authority in the teacher-pupil relationship is a necessity in order to research discipline and classroom management to its broadest potential. Giroux and MacLaren (1986) state that "*authority is inescapably related to a particular vision of what schools should be*" (p.224), and therefore this supports the need for a broad theorisation of the concepts discussed here. Although a concern with indiscipline in schools and the notion that teachers are 'losing their authority' is nothing new; the ways in which teachers are permitted to respond to perceived misbehaviour is in fact changing (e.g. RA) (Macleod *et al.*, 2012). The Nuffield Foundation (2009) perceived the threat to teachers' authority is actually the lack of input

they have into developing the curriculum, this would imply that they saw teachers' authority as gained from being an expert or professional. It is clear that the lack of discussion about authority and teaching can lead to perceptions regarding school behaviour that are not necessarily true. As it stands, the lack of research on the perceived threat to teachers' authority means that implementing any new initiative could encounter difficulties. The relationship between teaching, authority and behaviour management needs to be further theorised and uncovered in order for new initiatives to have the best chance for implementation, and also so that teachers feel more comfortable in their role. The importance of continuing research in teacher-pupil authority is particularly apparent in recent years, as the UK government promises to allow teachers to reclaim their 'lost authority' (DfE, 2011), yet behaviour management techniques are increasingly becoming more centred on child-rights or relationships within the school community. Murray and Pianta (2007) found that when pupil-teacher relationships improve in the classroom, concurrent improvements in classroom behaviour occur, and these are the types of strategies that should be employed. Macleod *et al.* (2012) touch on the idea that due to inadequate theorising and conceptualisation surrounding the idea of teacher authority, the only perceived way that teachers can maintain authority in a classroom is through control, however this may not be the case and the formation of healthy relationships may be helpful for authority to be enacted. Authority is enacted by staff through ongoing interactions and negotiations between teachers and pupils. These interactions and negotiations could either take a more controlling or relational stance. In order to fully understand and research any new behavioural or holistic approach for improving pupil discipline it is crucial to gain an understanding the complexities of authority in the classroom before looking at measures that are meant to improve school life and the classroom.

In order to explore what kind of authority relations promote good education, it is important to analyse the theoretical elaborations of authority in teachers, examine the ideologies that underlie common-sense ideas surrounding authority and teachers, and the investigation of what teacher and pupil interactions work together to construct authority in the classroom. Wrong's (2002) conceptualisations of authority as discussed in Macleod *et al.* (2012) will be discussed, alongside Wood's (1996) *social powers model* as discussed regarding teaching in Alderman and Green (2011). French and Raven's (1960) conceptualisation of the five bases of social power and how these relate to teaching will be discussed (Tauber, 1985). Pace and Hemmings (2007) discuss the different forms that authority can take, with each of these deriving from: teachers' legitimacy;

pupils' consent; or, a moral order consisting of shared values and norms. They build on Weber's 'ideal types' of authority in order to theorise authority relations in the classroom. These conceptualisations of authority have been chosen as they are mainly discussed in terms of teaching, and are the main theorisations available in the literature.

### 2.8.1 Wrong's (2002) conceptualisation

It is important to emphasise the fact that the right of a person to give orders depends on those around the beliefs of those around them on their legitimacy as an authority figure (Metz, 1978). Macleod *et al* (2012) build on this using Wrong's (2002) typology that aims to typify different forms of authority. They believe by using Wrong's concepts of authority it can help enhance teachers' understanding of the concept of authority in the classroom. Wrong (2002) theorised that that authority is distinguished from other power relationships such as manipulation and force because what is important is the source of instruction. Wrong's typologies differentiates different types of authority based on what motivates individuals to motivate them and contains five types of authority - coercive, legitimate, competent, personal and authority by inducement (Wrong, 2002). *Legitimate authority* is "grounded in the consensus of the group" (Wrong, 2002, p.61), it occurs when the person in authority has an acknowledged right to be in charge. This acknowledged right often comes from the social context, shared norms and place in society of the actor. For example, a citizen listening to a police officer as this is the expected pattern of behaviour and norm. Authority rests on the pupil understanding the place of the teacher and their right to issue command, their duty to obey due to these roles. This type of authority can be challenged by approaches that encourage teachers to consider pupils rights, or to form positive relationships with pupils. RA could place a strain on legitimate authority due to their emphasis on all members of the school community taking responsibility for their own actions, and also the particular importance that RA places on relationships within the school.

*Competent authority* comes from the notion that individuals comply with authority due to the belief that the authority's competence will correctly decide what is best for them (Wrong, 2002). This differs from legitimate authority as it does not involve a hierarchical structure, rather the belief that the competence of the individual lies in their knowledge, skill set and acting in the best interest of the pupils. Wrong (2002) refers directly to a pupil-teacher relationship, and believes that in this respect teaching differs from other professions. One of the points of interest regarding competent authority is that teachers will encourage pupils to exercise their own judgement on

what they are being taught and not be afraid to raise questions. Wrong (2002) is then concerned with how could teachers lose their competent authority if they are successful at passing on and developing expertise in their pupils. *Coercive authority* relies on compliance based on a threat to use some sort of force (Macleod *et al*, 2012). This can be seen as controversial because authority in general use often has some associations with a group consensus, however this is not always the case when it comes to educational discourses of authority (Wrong, 2002). In this typology, it is the belief of the person being commanded that is important to this type of authority even if the person in command would not necessarily follow through with the force. *Authority by inducement* is linked to coercive authority in that an individual remains compliant to the person in command because they will be granted with rewards (Wrong, 2002), this can be seen in many behaviour management programs throughout various schools. The final type of authority that Wrong (2002) typified is *personal authority*, and this is the type that Macleod *et al* (2012) pay particular attention to. The concept of personal authority is based on the personal qualities of the teacher inspiring a desire in the pupils to please the teacher, rather than the teachers possessing powers, expertise or a higher place in a hierarchy.

Research suggests that teachers who make an effort to establish relationships with their pupils are more highly valued than those who do not (Galton, 2007; Sellman, 2009) and this supports Wrong's typology of authority styles. Also in support is MacAllister (2010), arguing that the teachers characteristics play a fundamental role in how pupils respond to the teacher, and investigating this should be an important factor in examining classroom authority. Kristjansson (2007) argues that agreeableness should be seen as a moral virtue for teachers. Pupils give notably consistent answers when asked what features they like in teachers, as discussed in the classroom management section, this could mean that personal authority plays a large role in classroom life (Macleod *et al*, 2012). Carr (2003) suggests that authority in classroom can often break down not because of a failure of their classroom management technique or lack of expertise but because of their personal character:

*"In order to establish discipline and authority with a class of variously motivated and potentially unruly teenagers, teachers need to acquire or have acquired a range of qualities of personality and character more than any off the peg management skills."*  
(Carr, 2003, p. 261).

Characteristics that pupils prefer in teachers were discussed previously in this chapter, and this alongside Wrong's conceptualisations of authority place an emphasis on the idea that when there is inherently something 'likeable' or 'agreeable' about a teachers' nature the pupils will react to this and be more inclined to form respectful relationships with the teacher. The importance of relationships in maintaining a healthy classroom atmosphere and non-disruptive climate where pupils can engage in learning has been well documented throughout the literature reviews.

### 2.8.2 *Wood's conceptualisation*

Alderman and Green (2011) use a similar approach to Macleod *et al.* and build on Wood's conceptualisation of social powers in terms of teachers enacting authority in different ways. They believe that Wood's four social powers can be used by teachers in order to influence pupils to behave better, but also to excel academically. They view Wood's four concepts of social powers as a model that can help build pupil-teacher relationships, which in their view is the most important aspect of the school, classroom and behaviour management. Alderman and Green (2011) specifically mention that by using this model surrounding social powers, and teachers understanding the forms of authority they use, pupil-teacher relationships will improve as a direct result of this. The four categories they look at are: coercion; manipulation; expertness; and, likability. These are not dissimilar to Macleod *et al.*'s interpretation of Wrong's work. Coercion involves the control of pupils by implied threat, and the pupil directly ascribing their change of behaviour to the teachers actions and requests. Manipulation is where pupils will not ascribe their change in behaviour to the teachers actions and believe that they themselves initiated the change, however the teacher will have subtly changed the pupils behaviour (for example, a change in tone of voice). Expertness is similar to Wrong's (2002) 'competence', however it also entails that the teacher not has only expertise in their field, but also that the pupils view them as a problem-solver and can support them academically as well as emotionally. Hamre and Pianta (2005) point out that when pupils feel supported fully by the teacher, they are more likely to behave in class. Likability is the teacher's use of their own personal characteristics in order to get the pupils to like them, and therefore behave in positive ways. It is important to note that these types of social powers can be used in combination and singly by teachers who may or may not be aware of their use of these (Wood, 1996).

### 2.8.3 Pace and Hemming's conceptualisation

Pace and Hemmings (2007) are distinguished writers on authority in schools in the USA and distinguish teacher authority in four ways. They built on Weber's (1925) work on 'ideal' authority types and theorised that teachers used either: traditional authority, charismatic authority, or legal- rational authority. *Traditional authority* is similar to Wrong's legitimate authority, whereby beliefs are established that grant legitimacy to those in the ruling positions. Teachers are expected to be obeyed, simply because of their role as teacher. *Charismatic authority* is gained when the individual teachers charisma for their topic or pupils invites pupils to form emotional attachment and think highly of the teacher. The teacher may not act in a traditional manner, however pupils hold them in high regard and therefore respect them. *Legal-rational authority* is enacted by the teacher because of the rules and regulations, so that their position in the bureaucracy means they can issue and enforce commands, and use punishments and rewards where necessary. Pace and Hemmings (2007) also discuss further theorisation on Weber's work and identify (amongst other scholars) a fourth type of authority, *professional authority*. *Professional authority* is where teachers construct authority on the basis that they are the expert and their authority is needed in order for everyone to achieve consensual aims, namely pupils doing well in school.

### 2.8.4 French and Raven's conceptualisation

French and Raven (1960) conceptualised five bases of social power that are created in the classroom. The five types of authority they conceptualised are attractive, expert, reward, coercive and position. *Attractive* authority comes as a result of the teacher having a personality that is perceived by pupils in a positive way and emotionally investing themselves in forming relationships with their pupils. *Expert* authority comes from the perceived expertise of the teacher and that pupils felt they respected teachers when there was a great deal of value attached to what they had to say. *Reward* authority is a type of authority where the teacher use rewards in order to influence pupil behaviour. *Coercive* authority exercise their authority use their power to use disincentives, withhold privileges and give consequences or punishments to pupils not behaving how they deem to be appropriately. *Positional* authority means that as the teacher has the position of 'the teacher' they have authority; the assumption is that teacher has authority as there is no other person in the classroom that can fulfil the duties of the teacher. This conceptualisation is similar to the previous three, and highlights the similarity of different researchers investigating how authority is enacted over pupils by teachers. Examining these four different conceptualisations, it can be seen that the more prominent literature conceptualises

authority in relatively similar ways. The importance to the current research of looking at different conceptualisation of teacher authority is multi-faceted. As the idea of authority is relatively under-theorised in the RA literature it is necessary to review how authority is enacted by teachers. It is later considered whether RA might clash with this, and what might ease the transition.

## **2.9 Summary**

To conclude this chapter it is necessary to go back to the idea of a “*school ecology*” that exists within every school. This idea of a school ecology focuses on the interdependencies of the school culture, structures and community, and also the importance of context in understanding and exploring phenomena. Chapter Two has shown the necessity of respecting the complexity of integrated organisations, and the importance of using a multiplicity of perspectives to study complex phenomena in the school ecology. There are various factors that need consideration in the use of restorative approaches, and how this will interact with the existing contextual factors in the school. The literature surrounding school culture and climate, behaviour and classroom management, and the role of authority in schools is wide-ranging, interdisciplinary and complex. This chapter reviewed the main aspects of each of these in order to gain further insight into factors that will affect how RA is implemented and accepted (or not) into schools. Authority is a necessary, but poorly conceptualised concept in schools, and in that sense, it makes it more difficult to adequately discuss and research behaviour management techniques or use techniques like restorative approaches. In order to fully understand how and why RA work, it is necessary for researchers to further explore the authority relationship in schools. Research needs to dismantle ideas of authority as negative, and see it as an essential part of classroom dynamics. Without authority, teachers would not be able to educate their classrooms. Using the power bases as authority conceptualisation is a good start at moving beyond simply looking at techniques, but rather looking at characteristics and approaches teachers use that pupils respond well to. From the literature, it can be seen that forming positive relationships is one of the most important factors in providing a safe, orderly and welcoming environment in which pupils can learn effectively and where teachers do not suffer from adverse stress. The vast amount of behaviour management literature is fairly superficial and does not aim to go deeper into what pupils see as a good teacher, and what pupils react well to.

A common theme throughout behaviour management literature is the focus on relationships as highly important in maintaining order, and this could act as a catalyst for the use of restorative



approaches. RA focus on relationships and building and repairing these could prove very attractive to schools if they see the benefit of forming and maintaining such strong bonds. However, the school culture and individual teachers need to welcome these approaches and feel comfortable using them without feeling like their power is being taken away or that they are using the 'soft' options. Looking at authority relationships, how they are constructed and what form the teachers authority takes should be a important part of any school wide behavioural reform. Another problem identified is that whilst behaviour management literature has gradually moved to more school-wide, relationship based ideas, there appears to be some clashes with government priorities. The regaining of lost authority and power has been a main theme in recent government educational literature. This could create confusion and difficulty in explaining why RA could be helpful in schools. Chapter Three will continue on from this chapter, and look further into the idea of a relational school ecology that underpins the use of restorative approaches.

## **Chapter Three: A Relational Ecology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

A number of factors need to be considered when implementing any change or innovation in schools. Chapter Two reviewed the difficulty of school culture change, and the factors that can help or hinder school change. The idea of a ‘school ecology’ was reviewed in the previous chapter, in order to consider how the implementation of RA could potentially have an effect on a school culture. The school ecology shows how interconnected the various facets of everyday school life are, and how implementing RA on a wider level means changing a considerable range of factors in the school. Chapter Two also dealt with the various conceptualisations of authority throughout the educational literature, and Chapter Three will expand on this by further theorising the potential relationships between authority and restorative approaches. The relatively under-theorised relationship is important to discuss as it may be vital to understanding how best to implement RA and why RA are not always successful in schools. A potential ways of linking authority and RA is the ‘rediscovery’ of discipline in schools as an educational concept. Discipline should not just be something designed to keep classrooms orderly so that pupils can learn, but also designed to develop pupils into functioning members of society and increase their own self-discipline. Creating schools where a ‘relational ecology’ exists is potentially one way to achieve this.

A relational ecology provides a framework for understanding how school culture, school climate and pedagogies interact to define and build relationships between staff, pupils, parents, and the community. It ties in with ideas of the essential factors that need to be addressed when implementing RA and how these might be changed or challenged in order for RA to be successful. Chapter Three will discuss how engaged pedagogy, restorative approaches, and pupil engagement could all interact with each other in order to provide the “whole-school restorative approach” that is seen as desirable throughout the literature. Finally, literature on implementing RA will be reviewed and the practicalities revealed in previous research will be discussed. The effectiveness of existing RA in schools implementations will be discussed and further comments about the implementation of RA will be made from this.

### 3.2 Restorative approaches and Authority

In terms of the literature surrounding teacher authority in schools and the classroom that was reviewed in Chapter Two, there are a few comments to be made regarding the link with restorative approaches. These links are not always made in the literature, however are important in the overall context of introducing RA in schools, as this is an area where difficulty may lie. The interplay between authority, control, power and discipline is complex and can often be confusing. One of the confusions that could possibly arise is the use of language in discussing punishment and restorative approaches. Words like *relationships* and *people* are used copiously throughout the RA literature. However, they are often alongside words like *discipline*, *authority*, and *maintaining social order*. Creating a contrast that could potentially be problematic in the way language shapes how we think about things. In Western society, the frame of reference for notions of ‘justice’ are inseparably linked with the idea of punishment, rules and control. Western societies rely on punishment to discipline those who misbehave or commit crimes (McCold and Wachtel, 2003). In most organisations the desire to maintain orderly environments, where individuals know their place may be more significant than the desire to strengthen relationships.

Vaandering (2010) argues that confusion and discrepancies exist because of the language surrounding RA and the juxtaposition between words such as *relationships* and *authority*. Using language that focuses on behaviour, rather than relationships, can be problematic for individuals trying to implement a truly restorative approach. Vaandering (2010) argues that when language relating to RA is limited to promoting responses to behaviour it inadvertently begins to look at rules and blame, not relationships, and in reality does not move past the punitive-permissive continuum. This could prove potentially problematic for those wishing to implement RA on a more school-wide scale. McCluskey *et al* (2011) investigated teachers’ conceptions of RA and contextualised them within the current state of schooling. Although RA are discussed in terms of the positive impacts they can have on a school culture, they have not discussed how RA will affect the authority relations that exist in schools. It can be seen how even in research where exploring authority relationships would be beneficial to the overall research, it remains under-theorised and ignored in favour of talks about discipline. Kane *et al* (2007) suggested:

*“There’s always a risk when the going gets tough, restorative is an easy target in any school... you’ve got a kind of default setting among teachers saying ‘well that’s all very well but we’re not punitive enough, we’re not scary enough. The kids aren’t frightened of us.’”* (Kane *et al*, 2007, p. 43).

McCluskey *et al* (2011) found that even though there is a perceived loss of ‘strength’ or ‘authority’ in teaching, when RA is used it continues to be popular. The increasing popularity of RA against the context of a continuing commitment to punitive approaches by the government and OFSTED could show that RA is seen as worthwhile in schools. By creating a discussion about RA and authority in schools, confidence may be given to teachers that they are not ‘losing their authority’, rather enacting it in a different way. By doing this teachers could potentially stop resorting to punishment when things get tough.

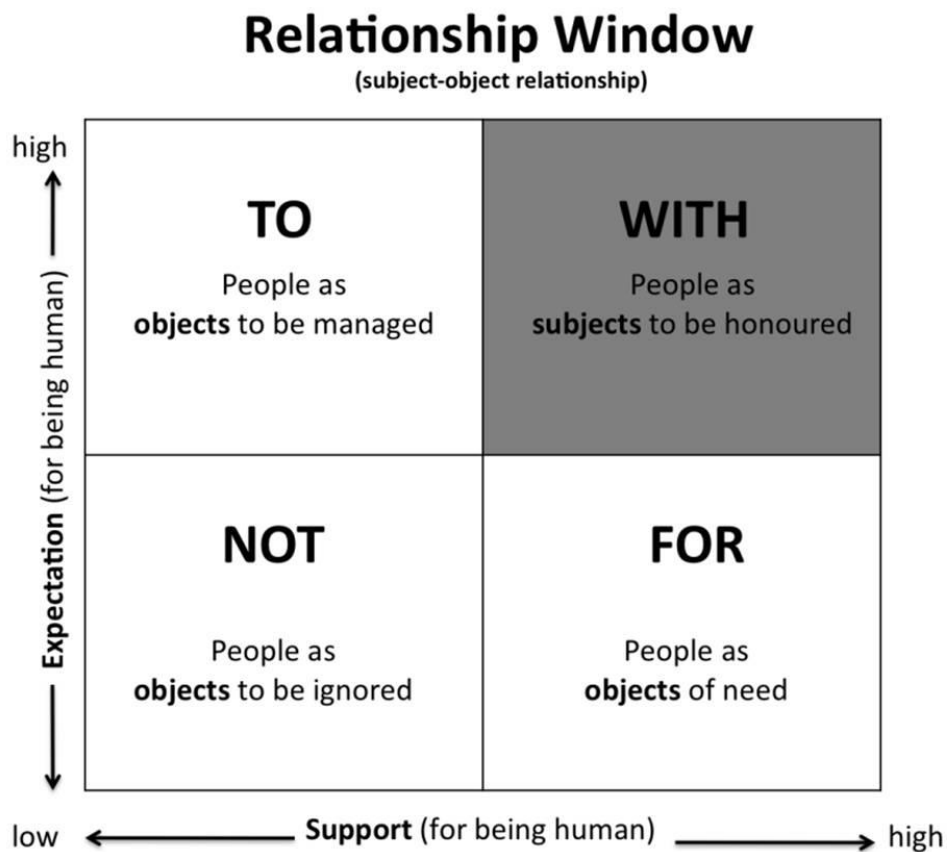
Reviewing the various conceptualisations of teacher authority in Chapter Two it was possible to see where RA might fit in and where they might cause conflict. McCold and Wachtel (2003) included the Social Discipline Window in their theoretical work on the use of RA in schools. They theorised that the Social Discipline Window encouraged teachers to look beyond the punitive-permissive response to student behaviour and work with pupils in a more engaged and relational manner, an approach which they labelled an authoritative approach. However, McCold and Wachtel (2003) conceptualised their social discipline window using a different basis for teacher authority. Whilst the previously discussed conceptualisation all follow a similar theme, McCold and Wachtel built on Baumrind's parent styles as the basis for their theoretical approach. Baumrind's (1966) approach was initially formulated out of an interest in the parental impact on child development. She eventually went on to conduct research on more than 100 pre-school children and their parents and identified four different important dimensions of parenting, which then developed into three parenting styles: authoritarian; authoritative; and permissive. Baumrind's work has since been tenuously linked with teaching, however it is not commonly used in educational research. Baumrind (1991) describes the authoritarian style as the individual attempting to control the behaviour of the child, and valuing good order and high standards of conduct as an absolute standard. The authoritative style is typified by still attempting to direct the child, but doing so by explaining the reason behind the rules and noting the child's concerns. For the authoritative style firm control is important, but restrictions are not the valued. The child is very much involved in their behavioural management and the teacher makes sure the child understands why they are being dealt with in such a way (Baumrind, 1967). Finally, permissive

styles are typified by allowing the child to follow their impulses, desires and actions and affirming them when they do so. The individual avoids exercising control over the child and does not encourage the child to obey externally identified standards. There is some attempt at reasoning and manipulation, but no overt shows of power (Baumrind, 1967).

Sullivan *et al* (2004) elaborate on Baumrind's (1996) research about parenting styles and the impact of those styles on children's development where parenting styles are categorised into passive, authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles. Sullivan *et al* (2004) expand this to look at teaching styles under Baumrind's categories. They found through an analysis on the literature about good teaching practices that there is a universal support for an authoritative style,

*“the authoritative teacher is demonstrably in control of the classroom environment, and has a clear agenda and purpose, while encouraging the individual members of the class to develop their self-determination and independence within reasonable boundaries”*  
(Sullivan *et al*, 2004, p.72).

Walker (2009) also expanded Baumrind's work on parenting styles to propose that authoritative classroom management is the most successful type for pupils and teachers. However, there remains the issue that for the most part, when research aims to conceptualise teacher authority it usually follows research that investigates the social bases of power, as discussed previously in Chapter Two. Baumrind's work could prove useful for teachers attempting to implement restorative approaches, however it is also likely that teachers will not fit in one certain box and will use different methods and approaches whenever they think necessary. It may be helpful for research on RA to consider the other conceptualisations of authority, and how RA might fit in with this. One way to potentially do this is view discipline as an educational concept for pupils, and authority enacted over pupils as a means to help them learn.



*Figure 5: Relationship Window, Vaandering (2010)*

Morrison and Vaandering (2012) and Vaandering (2010) provide a critique of the Social Discipline Window that will be explored as an alternative to Wachtel's model in the form of the *Relationship Window*. Morrison and Vaandering (2012) argue that the Social Discipline Window still requires that teachers talk about pupils in terms of what they are doing to them, rather than a process that involves mutual agreement from the staff and pupils. Vaandering (2010) states that by changing the focus of the Social Discipline Window from what teachers do to pupils, to emphasising the relationships between people and their environment, a window where individuals consider their interpersonal relationships is created. By encouraging individuals to consider their relationships with others, this gives the accountability that is important in

restorative approaches, but also views other people within the school cultures as individuals to engage with, rather than manage. Viewing individuals like this would help contribute towards a relational ecology where the school structure is based on the building and maintenance of relationships within the school. It also allows discipline to be seen as something that pupils will learn through their relationships with others. Both the Social Discipline Window and the Relationship Window will be considered in the discussion of the current research, and will reflect on how helpful these figures prove.

### **3.3 Rediscovering Discipline as an Educational Concept**

Throughout the behaviour management literature an important shift that has been described is the shift towards a more relationship centred, children's rights and pupil participation approach to school discipline and interventions (Flutter and Ruddock, 2004; Riddell *et al*, 2009; Osher *et al*, 2010). An approach like this is in keeping with the use of RA in schools, though not restricted to restorative approaches. Clark (1998) suggests that authority is an important part of schooling, however needs to be more strictly focused onto engaging pupils in their active experiences. In order to do this it is vital that the pupil-teacher relationship is sufficient to engage the pupil enough to prevent behavioural issues. The pupil-teacher relationship is vital in this sense as this initially catches the pupils attention, and does so long enough for the pupils own interest in the subject to grow. This shift in thinking, in a sense, is more akin to a restorative approach where relationships and harm to relationships are considered throughout the school community, and the idea of improving the school ethos is apparent. Clark (1998) argues that debates about the best way to gain discipline in schools and classrooms are disingenuous and that a child-centred approach is closest to respecting the moral issues surrounding the proper way to educate children. By allowing pupils to establish their own ideas, this gives them more freedom and responsibility in their approaches.

The term "Restorative Discipline" is used to describe the use of RA or using restorative practices in school disciplinary procedures. In the sense that building relationships and having a genuine interest and concern about their relationships with people in their community may help individuals to develop self-discipline this may be unproblematic. However, as discussed the use of the word *discipline* is problematic. It is too laden with notions of punishment and enforcement of rules which is clearly a move away from RA. Drewery and Kecskemeti (2010) state that

intuitively RA is not about discipline, but about community and relationship building. Drewery and Kecskemeti argue that when teachers feel as though their power is being taken away they are showing a fundamental misunderstanding of RA as some kind of (weak) form of punishment, showing the importance of looking further at authority relationships and RA. This could partly be due to the language used surrounding RA and also a societal viewpoint on punishment. Throughout the Western world there are few social practices that are more widely accepted or time-honoured as punishment of wrongdoers. Skiba and Peterson (2003) notes that in America the notion of discipline is often seen as synonymous with zero-tolerance approaches to behaviour, leading to the notion that discipline always involves the use of some type of punishment.

MacAllister (2014) comments that discourses surrounding school discipline are dominated by ideas of behaviour management, classroom management, rewards and sanctions. There is a considerable amount of literature dedicated on how best to ‘manage’ a classroom and behaviour, as has been reviewed in Chapter Two. Whilst this literature may be helpful on a practical level for teachers, it takes away a degree of agency of pupils over their own education, development and discipline. MacAllister (2014) argues that discipline needs to be rediscovered as an educational concept not just as ‘behaviour management’, in order to do this he suggests several questions that teachers and schools can ask about discipline:

*“how might discipline in my class and/or school be educational?; what knowledge and skills are worth passing on to pupils and what knowledge and skills are pupils interest in learning about and how can I help them learn about and acquire these knowledge and skills in a disciplined way?; how can I help pupils become disciplined by and acquainted with social rules and norms but in a way that also encourages critical questioning and democratic debate about social norms and rules?; and, how can I help pupils to think less about themselves and more about others?”* (MacAllister, 2014, p.2)

As an answer to the questions, RA seems like an ideal school-wide initiative to help reclaim the idea of discipline as an educational concept alongside the curriculum. RA can be seen as trying to introduce this concept to benefit pupils for life, as it entails a certain amount of pupil agency and input into their own direction in learning. However, the “rediscovery” of discipline as an educational concept may prove difficult due to the language used when discussing discipline and



behaviour. The Department for Education (2014) recently published a report for head teachers and school staff with advice surrounding behaviour and discipline in schools. The government may support the reactive restorative processes as “another tool in the box”, however their rhetoric and language used suggests they have not considered a more whole-school restorative approach and culture changes in schools.

The study of pedagogy is essentially about the theory and practice of education, and the combination of knowledge and skills required for effective teaching. Again, the idea of schooling as developing and shaping the next generation is relevant here, and teachers need to consider how they shape pupil identities in the context of societal needs and expectations. The idea of rediscovering discipline as an education concept and not as a concept entwined with behaviour management brings us on to the idea of pedagogical authority. This links in somewhat with the idea of *professional* authority, whereby the role of the professional includes having an expertise in the subject and pedagogical skills. The origins of pedagogy come from the relational and intentional responsibility of an adult to a child (Hatt, 2005). In terms of teachers, this will develop through ideas about the purpose of education, their own education, their training, and the school culture. Siljander (2002) (in Määttä and Uusiautti, 2012) argues that at the core of pedagogical authority is trust from the teachers that the pupil is able to learn and progress. The purpose of this type of authority is for the teacher to view the pupil as a potential equal, and to aim to help the pupil develop into an individual, responsible and functioning member of society. This is in line with literature on the moral purpose of education (Clark, 1998). Pedagogical authority is constructed in classrooms through the teaching-learning relationship, and in the way the teacher presents themselves, appreciates the pupils, show mutual responsibility and respect, and relates to their subject (Harjunen, 2009). The concept of pedagogical authority could be more in keeping with a restorative approach in schools, and if discussed this way with teachers could prove to ease anxieties of losing their authority. From a pedagogical authority standpoint, a teachers ability to encourage and support pupils in their learning is important, and creates a trusting and functional relationship between teachers and pupils (Kyllönen *et al*, 2013). The teacher exercises power in an authoritative, positive way and pupils react to this as they trust the teacher; similar to using RA.

By rediscovering discipline as an educational concept classroom management and discipline become further learning experiences for both pupils and teachers. Schooling is seen as

preparation for pupils to become “good” citizens, and work on their personal development and wellbeing (Boyd *et al*, 2006). Personal developments come from a pupils’ education on how to self-regulate and self-assess their behaviour, and adjust as necessary. By teaching a pupil these skills, conflicts can be resolved healthily, maintaining productive behaviour in social settings. Classroom management like this encourages pupils to engage both socially and academically. Vitto (2003) argues that by taking a ‘relationship-driven’ approach to teaching academic performance will improve due to the type of interaction between pupils and teachers. Relationship-based discipline is an approach to classroom management that depends on a pupil-teacher collaboration that promotes and maintains a safe, positive and engaged learning environment. The idea here is that mutually respectful relationships in the classroom will engage cooperation. Pupils behave because they know they are valued members of the classroom community. MacAllister (2014) argues that the notion of ‘classroom management’ is actually unhelpful as this implies that pupils have no degree of agency over their own behaviour, and are simply controlled by teachers. By acknowledging the responsibility pupils have over their own behaviour and development this reclaims the idea of discipline as a personal quality and should be developed throughout the schooling experience. By reconceptualising discipline in this way, allows for discipline to be less about control and punishment and more about the ethical and humanistic development of pupils (MacAllister, 2014). Viewing authority in terms of relationships develops a relational pedagogy where instructional practices are focused on building relationships. In order to reconceptualise this, authority needs to be seen as the relationship between people, rather than something that is given or taken as is often conceptualised in the educational literature. This kind of conceptualisation will improve both behaviour and learning because what is taught and how it is taught will be consistently informed by developing relationships and engaging pupils (Hopkins, 2011). All of this takes place as part of creating a relational ecology in schools and classrooms.

Creating a relational pedagogical foundation to schooling is akin to a “whole-school restorative approach”. A whole-school approach means that every aspect of schooling and the school life is in some way informed by restorative approaches. This will be discussed further in this chapter, including the challenges to implementing this kind of approach. A relational ecology uniquely emphasises social engagement over social control (Morrison and Vaandering, 2012). It is argued that what differentiates RA from other behaviour management strategies is, at its foundation the

emphasis on the well-being and inherent worth of all individuals, and the belief that all humans are profoundly relational (Vaandering, 2011; Zehr, 2005; Pranis, 2007). Morrison and Vaandering (2012) state that by creating a relational ecology based on a responsive regulatory framework grounded in relationships, bonds of belonging will be nurtured and social engagement will be improved. Human beings thrive in contexts of social engagement because we are naturally relational beings (Morrison, 2011; Pranis, 2007). The social and emotional foundation created by using RA to create a relation ecology will mean that schools move away from disciplinary measure of control and compliance (Haber and Sakade, 2009), and towards a pedagogy and praxis of engagement and development at individual and institutional levels (Morrison and Vaandering, 2012). The concept of discipline will regain its original meaning as a way of nurturing human capacity, rather than a way of managing others. However, this can be problematic when many teachers, are still reluctant to let go of punishments they are familiar with even though they understand and accept the premise of the importance of relationships (Morrison and Vaandering, 2012).

Punishment is identified by McCluskey *et al* (2011) as the “default setting” of many teachers and a symbolic part of schooling and conceived teacher power. The taken for granted structures and systems that relate to punishment and discipline within schools are seen by McCluskey *et al* (2008b) to be the biggest challenge to implementing RA. It is argued that when situated in the context of behaviour and classroom management, RA can inadvertently reinforce the agenda of control, instead of creating relational and interconnected school cultures (Vaandering, 2014). To create this relational pedagogy by using RA, it is thought that the discourse needs to be “untied” from literature surrounding classroom management and behaviour and move towards viewing relationships as important. By examining RA in terms of pedagogy and enhancing the learning of pupils, attention is shifted away from behaviour management to teaching and learning (Vaandering, 2014). Connecting teaching practices and social outcomes is of particular significance in a relational ecology. There are four key elements to creating these productive pedagogies: intellectual quality, connectedness, inclusivity and value of differences, and supportive climates (Vaandering, 2014). The significant shift is a move away from being a rule-based institution, to an institution based on relationships and to nurturing social-engagement (Zehr, 1990). Morrison and Vaandering (2011) argue that in this context, RA can be undermined by the existing punitive, managerial, power structures in schools. By placing RA in the context of engaged, productive pedagogies or a “whole-school approach” the success rate is argued to be far

higher and reach farther than simply behavioural improvements. From reviewing this literature it could be argued that RA provides the values, principles, and processes required to reclaim the idea of discipline as an educational concept. By improving relationships and engagement within a school, this would improve pastoral and academic factors in the school. Chapter Three now discusses in more detail the importance of relationships to restorative approaches, and more practical issues relating to the implementation of RA.

### **3.4 The Importance of Relationships**

The importance of relationships to behaviour management, healthy schools and RA is well documented throughout the literature. From reviewing the existing literature on RA in schools, and the conceptual foundations for RA in schools in Chapter One, it can be seen that one of the most important components of RA is the relationships within a school. Relationships are also theorised as highly important for classroom management, whether it be under a restorative umbrella or other technique. The establishment and maintenance of high quality, respectful relationships is seen as the cornerstone for a healthy school community. It has been argued that the use of restorative approach should be values based and needs led, and used as part of a wider culture that encourages strong, mutually respectful relationships that deter misbehaviour and create a healthy culture for learning. One of the central tenets of RA is that misconduct is viewed not as breaking the rules, but a violation of interpersonal relationships and community (Shaw, 2007). McCluskey *et al* (2008a) posit the strength of a restorative approach in education is the emphasis that it places on human relationships which are central in the life of schools which is based on social interaction. Cameron and Thorsborne (1999) highlight the importance of RA in identifying harm in relationships, working to resolve this and ultimately strengthening the relationships. McCluskey *et al* (2008a) argues that the framework RA provides allows schools to address much larger questions about relationships in the school, processes and priorities. The focus on quality relationships and social skills developments provides an ideal environment in which to implement RA (Shaw, 2007). It is argued that staff who use RA correctly will develop more positive relationships with their pupils, and ultimately not feel compelled to use punitive approaches as much (Gregory *et al*, 2011). RA could potentially produce better results in schools where relationships are already well developed; these may be ideal places to implement restorative approaches, although they may need it less than others.

### **3.5 Evaluations of RA in Education - evidence for the effectiveness of RA in schools**

Whilst there is a relatively small amount of research focusing on school based restorative approaches, the evaluations are broadly positive. Research that exists shows: overall improvements in the school environment (Sumner *et al*, 2010); promising levels of compliance and engagement (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001; Hudson and Pring, 2000); promising evidence of changes in attitudes towards more restorative resolutions of conflict (Kane *et al.*, 2006); improved communication throughout the school community (Morrison and Martinez, 2001); success in dealing with behavioural incidents and harm such as bullying, violence and truancy (Cowie *et al*, 2008); pupils feeling as though they have a safe place to express themselves (Morrison and Martinez, 2001); and positive effects on pupils who go through conferencing (Drewery, 2004; Edgar *et al*, 2002). These are all promising outcomes that clearly encourage schools to utilise RA. A reoccurring theme emphasised within the literature is the fact that a whole-school approach should be used in order to maximise effectiveness of RJ (Hopkins, 2004; Bitel, 2001; Hopkins and Tyrrell, 2001; McCluskey *et al.*, 2008). If RA are used on a limited basis then traditional disciplinary approaches tend to predominate (Sherman and Strang, 2007). It has been found that tensions between existing traditional punishment and RA created tension in the implementation of RJ (Wilcox and Hoyle, 2004). Various reasons for this have been explored over the course of the literature review, for example, the difficulty in changing the school culture and the unclear relationship with RA and authority.

The correct implementation of RA is a predominant theme in the literature. Problems with slow implementation due to lack of clarity and organisation have been identified (Edgar *et al*, 2002). Research suggests that in order for RA to be successful, the programme needs to be implemented sensitively in a restorative manner and with a time frame of 3-5 years in mind (McCluskey *et al*, 2008). To assist schools in implementing restorative approaches, more research needs to be done on resistance to RA within the school and barriers to implementation (Shaw, 2007). The success of the introduction of RA within schools is believed greatly improved if senior staff in the school are committed to the approach and aim to put it above other disciplinary actions (Bitel, 2001). Whilst conferencing may be effective in schools, it is not enough and a restorative philosophy needs to be implemented to the whole school in order for RA to become a permanent fixture. The evidence from the larger UK based RA in schools initiatives will now be summarised, in order to convey the literature as it stands.

### 3.5.1 UK Evaluations

The Youth Justice Board of England and Wales carried out one of the largest evaluations of RA in the UK, working with 20 secondary schools and 6 primary schools in England and Wales (Bitel, 2005). There were a range of restorative processes and interventions carried out in the pilot schools, however these were mainly reactive and on the more formal end of the restorative scale. Less than half the schools aimed for a more integrated “whole-school” approach to implementation. It is difficult to accurately interpret the research as implementation and use of RA varied substantially between schools, and often (43% of staff) staff did not know that RA were being used in their schools (Bitel, 2005). However, in schools that used the approach there was also a reported significant improvement in behaviour (Bitel, 2005). The research stated that whilst RA was *“not a panacea for problems in schools... if implemented correctly... could improve the school environment, enhance learning and encourage young people to become more responsible and empathetic”* (Bitel, 2005, p.13).

The RA in School (RAiS) programme provided school staff restorative training in order for them to implement a whole-school restorative approach within their school (Skinns *et al*, 2009). The RAiS evaluation found that staff and pupils felt RA were an effective way of dealing with bullying. RA appeared to have: a positive effect on school attendance; improved the emotional literacy of both staff and pupils; contributed towards a calmer school environment; improved communication between all members of the school community; challenged existing preconceptions about pupil discipline and punishment; and, encouraged a fair way of dealing with perceived wrongdoing where everyone was happy with the outcome (Skinns *et al*, 2009). However, it was also noted that the pace of the long-term change created some dissatisfaction amongst staff, and implementing RA in ‘pockets’ meant there was greater scope for staff to adjust. This is in direct contradiction of the literature on whole-school restorative approaches; however Skinns *et al* (2009) do point out that implementing in pockets means that the opportunity to fully integrate RA into the school was lost.

In 2004, three Scottish councils established a pilot project in the use of RA in three separate counties. McCluskey *et al* (2007) evaluated the first two years of implementation in 18 of the pilot schools. Again, evaluation results were tentatively optimistic with: some staff adopting restorative language and conversations; some staff claiming that there were improvements in

classroom climate; restorative meetings being used to address conflict in school; a generated interest in RA amongst staff; and, the use of more developed conferencing processes involving a formal structure and script (Lloyd *et al*, 2007). However, there were also a number of challenges identified in the evaluations, mainly involving the more integrated use of RA in the school context. They found that as change was slow, dedication was an issue that needed to be dealt with, and staff had to allow more time for changes to show on a wider school level. They also found there was a continued need to promote restorative conversations and language across the schools; and staff needed the opportunity to reflect and value the restorative ethos, not just the reactive processes (Lloyd *et al*, 2007).

In 2007, Durham County Council secured funding to implement and evaluate RA in two secondary schools over a three year period (Kokotsaki, 2013). Overall there were many positive changes in both schools, including: a calmer, more relational school; enhanced communication and respect; extensive use of restorative processes like circle time; higher levels of participation and engagement from pupils; and, the role of the teacher moving from a more authoritarian role to that of a co-learner. The Durham implementation provided a more meticulously planned implementation and evaluation of RA as it was only being implemented in two schools and easier to provide more detail. Findings still showed that there were number of staff and pupils who failed to engage with, or found it difficult to use restorative approaches. The continuing issue of time it took to implement the approach due to training, cost and time constraints (Kokotsaki, 2013). Overall, the three large-scale UK based evaluations have all shown that restorative conferences and reactive processes are generally met with positivity and desirable outcomes. However, there seems to be a marked difficulty in integrating a restorative values base and ethos throughout the school culture in a meaningful way. The research from the use of RA is mainly positive and advocates are extremely optimistic about the difference that RA could make in schools. The main research projects show that whilst RA do have the potential to improve schools, they are not without their problems.

### *3.5.2 How can the success of restorative approaches in schools be measured?*

Advocates of RA are often found reluctant to address its limitations which are often due to the conceptual ambiguity of the term. Ambiguity arises because of the multiple uses of RJ and its relation to RA and can make it difficult to define what successful means with regards to restorative approaches. Research about RA in schools can use quantitative data to get an idea on the effect that the approaches are having on the school, these include: detention rates; exclusion

rates; student absences; teacher absences (which may be due to stress); number of serious incidents; number of pupils sent to the head teacher; and, questionnaires before and after a restorative intervention. Using quantitative data, research can hope to map any general trends and changes within the school after the introduction of restorative approaches. Qualitative data can also be used such as interviews and observations to question the direct effect that the use of RA has on people, whether that be: pupils who have gone through a process; teachers who have facilitated a process; or, members of the general community.

Currently, most research into RA either covers the effectiveness of a single restorative process, or examines key characteristics<sup>3</sup> in schools to see if there are signs of improvement. Quantitative and qualitative research studying the effects of RA has been carried out by scholars and practitioners from a range of different disciplines. There is a lack of standardisation in the research that has been carried out regarding RA within the school context: this makes success a difficult concept to work with; however, it shows one of the benefits of the use of RA in school, its adaptability to different school communities. As each school will start using RA for different reasons, the idea of success will be different, though there are general trends that will always be seen as beneficial. However, this can make it difficult for researchers wishing to evaluate the success of RA in a school as they need to clearly identify the characteristics of the school they will be investigating or measuring and pick an appropriate methodology to do this.

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<sup>3</sup> for example, attendance and attainment data



### **3.6 Implementing restorative approaches in education**

The literature suggests that in order for RA to be successfully integrated into schools, restorative principles and values needs to be embedded throughout the school and its structures (Hopkins, 2004). In Chapter Two the idea of a school culture and the difficulties faced when attempting to implement change were reviewed. When an organisation is implementing change on a large scale, one or more ‘change agents’ are required. These change agents are individuals who have the necessary skills to bring about and organise change in an organisation, and can be internal and external agents (Lunenburg, 2010). Lunenburg argues that any change depends heavily on the change agents and the relationship they have with the organisation and its key decision makers. The internal change agents in schools can be key members of staff, particularly leaders in the school who have a direct influence on school organisation.

External change agents could be those sourced in order to provide training and consultancy in implementing the change. Hopkins (2002) found that if an outside agency is introducing RA there is a risk that staff may feel as though the skills of the external agent are too complex, and therefore this could be demotivating for them. In contrast to this, Kane *et al* (2006) found that external agencies can be very helpful in implementing change if it is managed correctly. Whilst using external agencies to help with implementation it is important to consider and plan for possible clashes between the agencies’ cultures, and ensure that the external change agent and leadership in the school have the same vision for implementation. Hopkins (2006) argues that whilst an external agency may be initially used to provide training for a school, eventually there needs to be momentum from within the school to develop training and promote restorative values. Wearmouth *et al* (2007) state that the fact that a school is allowing for additional support in implementing is a positive as it shows they are willing, open and responsive to building interagency relationships, however this depends on the context of the relationship and how staff view them. The YJB (2004) found that due to time constraints being a considerable concern of staff, often outside agencies carrying out more formal restorative conferences were seen as valuable and more realistic. It is clear that how and who will be implementing RA needs to be carefully considered based on a schools individual need.

### **3.7 Whole-School Approach to Restorative Approaches**

In general, any whole-school approach to behaviour management that focuses on the community and not just individual incidents is thought to be more effective at reducing instances of challenging behaviour (Watkins and Wagner, 2000). Ofsted (2005) have also emphasised the importance of a whole-school approach to behaviour management in order to improve overall behaviour and lessen behavioural incidents. Effective behaviour management on a whole school level is believed to have a positive effect on teacher self-efficacy, confidence levels and motivation (Goddard and Goddard, 2001). Educational researchers who have worked within schools believe that in order for the reactive aspect of restorative practices to work (e.g. conferencing, victim offender mediation, etc.) they need to be embedded in the restorative ‘milieu’ that is the ‘whole-school restorative approach’ (Blood, 2005; Hopkins, 2004; McCold and Wachtel, 2002; Morrison, 2001; Morrison, 2002; Morrison, 2005; Riestenberg, 2001; Thorsborne and Vinegrad, 2004). A whole-school restorative approach means not just knowing *how* to carry out the restorative processes, but also possess the philosophy, ethos and skills that underpin RA and weave these into everyday life within the school (Hopkins, 2004). RA implemented on this level would influence both the methods used by staff, but also their approaches to thinking about pupil misbehaviour. A whole-school approach is arguably critical to the ongoing sustainability of RA within a school (Shaw, 2007). Wachtel (1999) argues that without restorative practice becoming a whole new mindset it will not affect meaningful change within a school. The restorative processes must be systemic and employed by everyone in the community; for everyone in the community. It is important to identify the difference between a reactive use of RA where restorative processes are used when harm is caused, and a proactive use of RA where restorative values, ideas, philosophies and beliefs permeate the culture and immerse the school in a way of life that values relationships, curriculum and social and emotional learning (Morrison, 2002).

If a school is using a ‘whole-school restorative approach’ it will become a way of life, and not just a behavioural management model (Wachtel, 1999). By implementing RA on an organisational, whole-school level the focus of the institution can shift from being rules based to relationship based (Elliot, 2011). Hopkins (2002) argues that when everything in a school is informed by a restorative ethos, then everything becomes focused on building, maintaining and repairing relationships and a sense of community. Preston (2002) discusses a schools “readiness” to uptake RA and principles, and how this can be greatly influenced by senior management, awareness raising, training and ongoing support. There are a wide range of factors that will

dictate whether a school is successful using RA. When schools change to using RA it has been found that the approaches used tend to fall in to a continuum of practices, from formal to informal practices (Wachtel, 1999; Wachtel and McCold, 2001). The formal practices will take the form of circles or conferences of varying sizes and degrees. The most informal way to use a restorative approach is an 'affective statement' or 'affective questions' which involves voicing emotions "You really upset me then" or questioning "How do you think your behaviour made me feel?". These affective statements and questions are thought of as the most basic restorative 'tool' and are meant to be apparent in the daily life of a school that has adopted whole-school RA. In the middle of the continuum there are "small impromptu conferences" sometimes called corridor or classroom conferences that can happen as and when the staff or pupils feel they are necessary. Hopkins (2003) describes this whole-school approach as bringing restorative behaviour and language in to everyday school life and bring the school culture in line with restorative philosophies. It is believed that the full potential of RA and philosophies will be realised when they permeate every corner of school life and there is no option or desire to use other approaches (Wachtel, 2003). Change like this involves: changing the language and actions of everyday interactions within the school; the staff becoming aware of the benefits that RA can bring for the school community; all of the school community taking responsibility for nurturing and healing relationships; and, the school community being aware of how best to deal with harm and trusting that RA will work. Harrison (2007) states that *"there is no doubt that schools are crying out for a cultural change that meaningfully responds to the rapidly changing needs of our youth and the broader community"* (p.20). In order for the implementation of RA to be successful, the staff needs to be convinced of the necessity of culture change.

It is important to recognise that simply implementing and introducing RA into a school will not ensure that the whole school changes in order to be more restorative. Change is a complex and long process and should be properly planned for if it is desirable. Hargreaves (1999) argues that in order to assess schools readiness for change there needs to be an understanding of the existing school culture and how effective school leadership and structures are. Chaplain (2003) and Knight (2007) found that where school leadership styles were democratic, and not autocratic or laissez-faire, these are the schools that manage behaviour well. School leadership is also linked positively with school climate and overall positive pupil outcomes (Day *et al*, 2009). Strong and directional school leadership is a clear factor in implementing any school change and will likely drastically affect its uptake in the school. Morrison, Blood and Thorsborne (2005) argue that the change should be seen as a gradual widening of the 'restorative lens' in the school, and a long

term strategic, yet flexible approach is necessary. Tyrell (2002) supports this by stating that in order for RA to flourish there is a need for commitment to the underpinning values and principles. This is done partly by ensuring that staff fully understand the principles, but also that they become part of school behaviour management policy (Edgar *et al*, 2002). This change needs to be in both teachers' ideas about the purpose of discipline as well as their ideas about the use of punishment.

### 3.7.1 Models for a whole-school restorative approach

The idea of a “whole-school approach” to RA in education is still in the relatively early days of research. However, there are a number of questions that need to be addressed in order to understand how a restorative organisation would work on a broader level. The review will now discuss three restorative models for whole-school approaches and These models are: Morrison's regulatory pyramid (2005); Morrison's (2004) pyramid; and, Wachtel's (1999) Social Discipline Window.

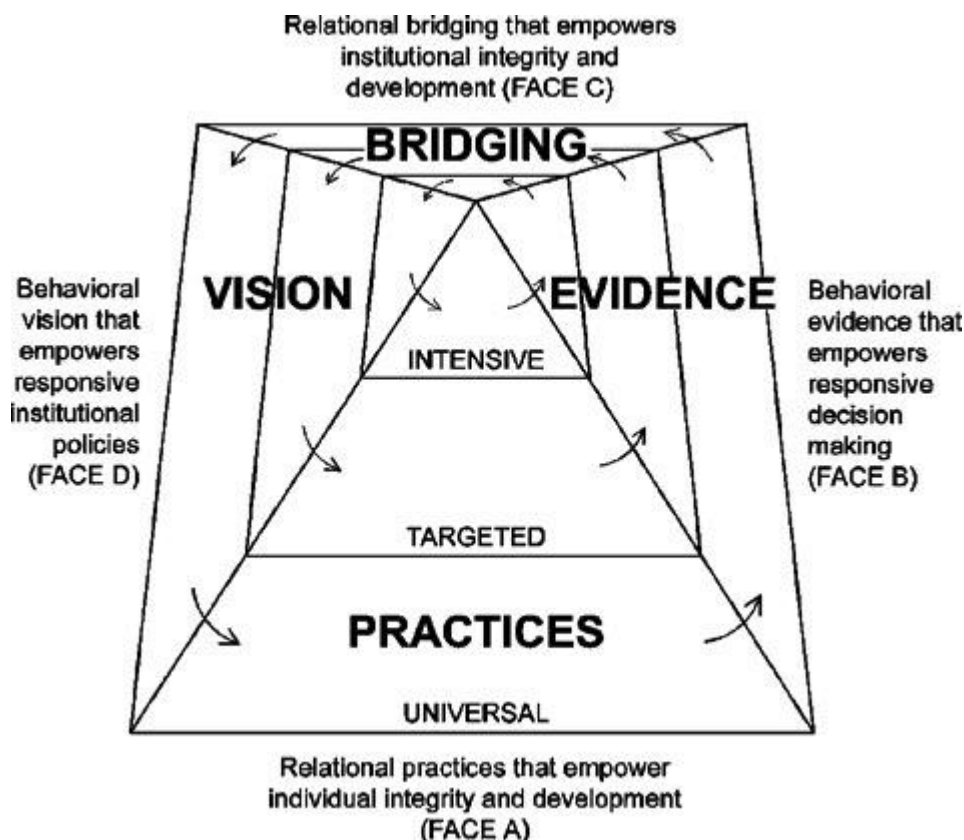
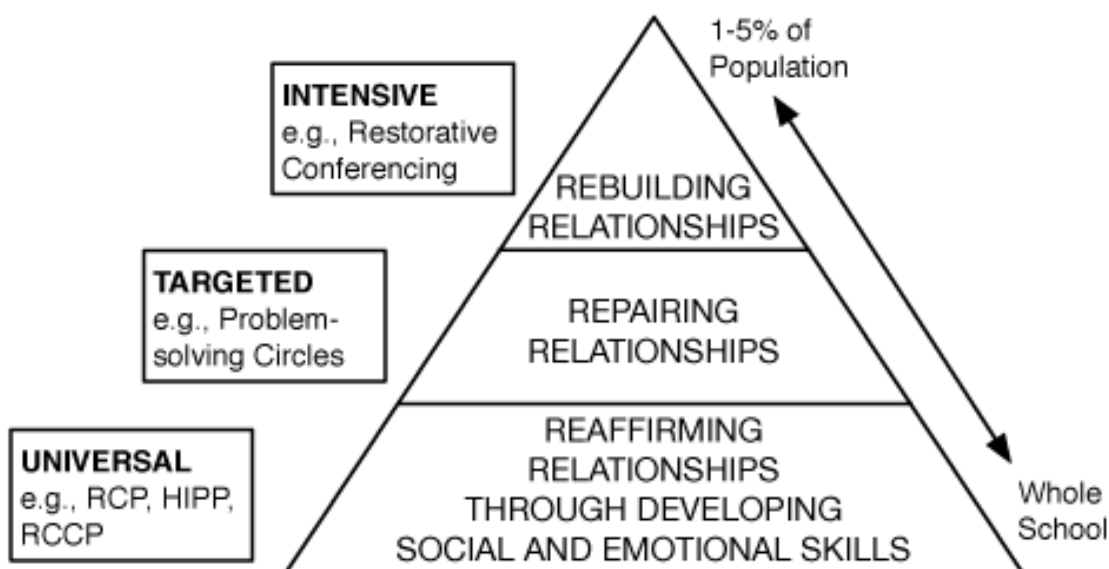


Figure Six: Regulatory pyramid, Morrison (2005)

Morrison's (2005) pyramid draws on Braithwaite's (2002) work on responsive regulation and RJ. Morrison (2005) conceptualised a regulatory pyramid model that conceives the levels of restorative intervention in school which form a continuum of response based on common principles. In the context of creating a sustainable whole-school restorative culture, it is important that growth and development happen at both the individual and institutional levels. Morrison, Blood and Thorsborne (2005) argue that there should be an interlocking system of responsive regulation based on four factors: practices that are relational and empower individuals' integrity and development; behavioural evidence that empowers responsive decision making; empowering institutional integrity and development through relational bridging; and, empowering responsive institutional policies through relationships. Morrison's (2005) framework provides a process where schools can be responsive to behaviour and restorative to relationships. This means that behaviour is not forgotten, rather integrated into a larger context that realises the importance of relationships to individuals. In the pyramid, the relational and behavioural sides stand opposite each other, meaning as you move around the pyramid the behavioural and relational faces alternate and become a framework for covering both individual and institutional needs.



*Figure 7: Hierarchy of restorative responses, Morrison (2004)*

Morrison (2004) argues the case for a whole-school restorative approach using a hierarchy of restorative responses, and encourages the use of this when schools are attempting to implement

RA into their culture. The pyramid conceptualises the use of RA in education and illustrates the importance of a solid restorative values bases/ethos that underpins everything that happens in the school. This restorative base provides a school ethos that encompasses restorative values and acts as a foundation for further restorative skills and processes to develop.

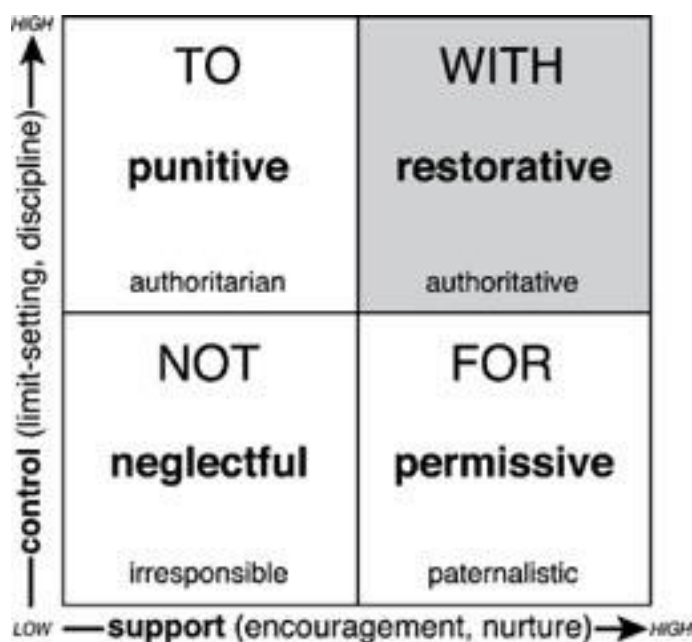


Figure 4: Social Discipline Window, Wachtel (1999)

The final model for a whole-school restorative approach that will be discussed here is Wachtel's Social Discipline Window (1999). The Social Discipline Window conveys how by working towards a restorative approach a school can develop social capital and encourage community members to work together and relationally. By providing high structure and support for both the community and individuals, the school will develop a culture where individuals are relationship aware, take responsibility for their actions, collaborating and cooperating. Blood and Thorsborne (2005) suggest that this can be achieved by using Wachtel's continuum of restorative processes where both reactive and proactive strategies are needed to create a whole-school approach. The combined effect of these models shows that a whole-school restorative approach in schools can be created by fostering the development and growth of the underlying restorative principles and values base, and then building on this by using more formal and informal restorative processes. By developing a restorative approach on a whole-school level, with an emphasis on

relationships and a restorative values base, the school would also develop a relational ecology. By developing an understanding of the main restorative principles that provide the basis for a whole-school approach and a relational ecology it will be possible to reveal to what extent (if any) the restorative philosophy has become a part of the schools' philosophies.

### ***3.7.2 Implementing a whole-school approach***

There is limited research on the implementation of RA in schools. The existing research shows there can be great difficulty with getting staff to agree with the changes. It is common to find a school with one or two stakeholders who are enthusiastic and eager to introduce RA with the rest of the staff unsure (McCluskey *et al*, 2008b). Chapter Two has already reviewed in depth the idea of a specific school culture and the various aspects that form to make a culture. It is thought that the main way to implement RA successfully is to ensure that all the staff in the school and members of the community have 'bought in' to the idea of RA as a way to deal with harm so that it becomes part of the wider school culture (Rourke, 2001; Studer, 2001). It is agreed by researchers that in order for an organisation to become restorative it needs to commit to cultural and organisational change (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2005). While this may seem a simple task it involves massive changes for the way the school works and needs to involve a change of mindset for the staff involved. Changing the school 'culture' to adhere to a restorative philosophy can be very time consuming and can be a task that most staff feel they do not have the time for or it is not their job to deal with. A "grass-roots" level of belief surrounding restorative philosophies is necessary for a whole-school restorative approach (Pranis, 1995).

There are many factors that can impede change within a school culture and make introducing behavioural management reforms difficult. From the educational literature, Hargreaves (1997) identified the main reasons that reform or change often fails. These are:

- the change is unclear and poorly conceptualised therefore it is not well understood how it will be of benefit to the school, the staff and the pupils;
- the change is on too large a scale so the staff feel overwhelmed, or conversely, it is too small so little noticeable real change occurs;

- the change is too fast paced so the staff feel unable to cope with it, or it is so slow that they feel as if nothing is happening and become bored;
- resources designed to help are either lacking or withdrawn after the first few months leaving staff unable to implement changes they have been able to learn;
- after the unavoidable setbacks that inevitably happen at the beginning of a new reform there are no long-term commitments or support to deal with these and move on;
- key cultural stakeholders may either be over involved and are inadvertently excluding other staff or are disinterested and under involved which does not encourage other staff members;
- as parents are not consistently in touch with the school they feel at a distance to the reforms;
- and, the reform is undermined by other unchanged parts of the school.

These reasons are apparent throughout the RA literature to explain difficulties in implementing restorative approaches. Problems with time, leadership, stakeholders, and resources are common reasons RA fail to become integrated into the school culture. Assessing the intricacies of implementation in both a theoretical and practical manner is very important. By reviewing the literature on school ecologies it can begin to be seen why implementation is often difficult. It is also believed that nothing gives a more powerful indicator about whether change will be successful than the power relationships within the school (Sarason, 1996). The culture of schools is determined by these relationships, but it is hardly ever mentioned within the school community. Whilst power in the school may be unbalanced, RA are vulnerable to power imbalance within relationships. The culture change needs to be implemented by people who believe the reform will work and who can bring along other staff in the belief. Encouraging a sense of ownership over the reform.

Karp and Breslin (2001) found three main reasons that school communities tended to resist the change to RA. Firstly, they found that the training took too long, the staff felt they were short of time to implement properly and RA were just another thing on their 'to do' lists. Secondly in order for a meaningful change in the school philosophy towards punishment to be seen there needed to be a long term (1-3 years) commitment to change. Lastly they felt they lacked the knowledge about the reparation of specific harms. The idea that staff thought they were already



carrying out RA is also found to be an issue in implementation (Skinns *et al*, 2009). If a staff member believes they are already practicing RA, this can be used to resist change and training. There is no one model of effective implementation for RA, however a few models have been formulated in order to provide realistic timelines and plans for whole-school implementation (Kane *et al*, 2006). The literature in general suggests that a successful implementation is thought to take up to five years in order to maintain a less punitive, more inclusive restorative culture (Blood, 2005; Morrison, 2005a; Hopkins, 2004). Cameron and Thorsborne (2001) developed guidelines for implementation of RA for schools throughout the world. These include: the need for professional development in restorative philosophy, skills and practices for all school staff; the development and maintenance of a highly skilled group of conference facilitators; RA should be used in all aspects of school life, even in dealing with staff disputes; restorative philosophy, skills and practices should be taught in pre-service education; and, there needs to be policy development that allows schools to move beyond the traditional approach of developing codes of behaviour, and reflect on matters of curriculum, pedagogy and school organisation. These guidelines highlight the need for a restorative value base and underlying ethos which then informs the restorative skills, which then allow restorative processes to occur. Blood and Thorsborne (2005) formulated a five-step plan to implementation of restorative approaches. These are as follow:

<b>Stage One</b>	Gaining commitment - capturing hearts and minds
<b>Stage Two</b>	Developing a share vision - knowing where we are going why
<b>Stage Three</b>	Developing responsive and effective practice - changing how we do things
<b>Stage Four</b>	Developing a whole-approach - putting it all together
<b>Stage Five</b>	Professional relationships - walking the walk with each other

*Table 1: Five step implementation plan, Blood and Thorsborne, 2005, p. 6*

The implementation plans shows the importance of schools “owning” and understanding the restorative vision cannot be underestimated. Implementation is a slow process and preparing for the change is as important as actually learning the restorative processes. Morrison *et al* (2005) argue that “*challenging the hearts and minds of staff is the essence of culture change*” (p. 325) and this suggests an individual journey as much as an institutional journey. Issues have been raised about the personal style of school staff and how this affects RA (Shaw, 2007). Staff training is thought to be an important part of implementation (Skinns *et al*, 2009). Often teachers

can feel as though they are losing their power and control in the classroom context when trying to use RA (Shaw, 2007). An essential part of training is ensuring that staff fully understand the complexities behind restorative approaches. In the Youth Justice Board evaluation 7% of teachers who believed they knew a lot about RA were actually unable to correctly identify any of the main values or features (YJB, 2004). Proactive interventions are also necessary for a cultural change within the school (Morrison, 2002). Leadership is one of the most critical factors of school culture change. The leaders within the school need to be able to empower the staff to make changes and show them why implementing these changes is worth the work that will be put in (Morrison *et al*, 2005). It is important that RA are not forced by the school managers, as one of the core philosophies is ensuring all voices are heard and thus the change needs to be implemented with a restorative philosophy (Rideout *et al*, 2010). It is important to try and be as non-hierarchical as possible when trying to implement a restorative culture change. Other restorative skills will be useful in implementing RA such as ensuring that everyone has a voice that can be heard, listened to and supported if needed. This apparent contradiction between non-hierarchical implementation versus a leadership-driven change is not resolved in their writing. Blood and Thorsborne (2006, p.6) also outline a number of factors that can help or hinder the implementation of restorative approaches. These are as follows:

1. The amount of funding available
2. The overall vision and expectations of the key stakeholders (whole-school or a behavioural tool?)
3. The school culture (existing attitudes of staff, pupils and parents)
4. Pre-existing school policies and measures used to deal with conflict, and whether RA will replace these or be written into policy
5. How, to who and by whom the training is administered and received
6. Whether RA are incorporated into the curriculum
7. The external school community
8. The time scale given for implementation
9. The degree to which outside agents may be involved
10. The commitment and continued presence of the key stakeholders

These key factors are often found throughout organisational literature on culture change and

introducing innovations. These points show the various areas where RA can fall short, and the size of the task when trying to implement RA on a whole-school level. It is vital to take an in-depth look at the school ecology as was done in Chapter Two, and the variety of factors that need to be considered when implementing RA. Blood and Thorsborne's ten factors will be addressed alongside the current research findings in the discussion. It can be seen that the practicalities of implementation are very much based in the literature surrounding various areas of the school ecology.

### **3.8 Summary**

RA offer schools an alternative way of thinking about addressing behavioural issues and discipline. Focusing on what relationships were harmed and what can be done to repair this harm is an integral part of RA. McCluskey *et al* (2008) define RA in schools as

*“where staff and pupils act towards each other in a helpful and non-judgmental way; where they work to understand the impact of their actions on others; where there are fair processes that allow everyone to learn from any harm that may have been done; where responses to difficult behaviour have positive outcomes for everyone”*  
(McCluskey *et al*, 2008).

RA has gradually attracted interest across a number of organisations in the UK as discussed in Chapter One, and continue to be a prevalent choice for youth work and justice. Schools are seen as an ideal place to introduce RA as they are developmental institutions that play an important role in the maintenance of civil society, yet also have the ability to provide a supportive environment where pupils can safely develop positive conflict resolution skills and emotional literacy (Blood, 2005; Blood and Thorsborne, 2006; Crawley, 1995). Schools that use RA would help pupils to develop their own sense of self-control and discipline by providing a supportive community where pupils are held accountable for their actions and understand the importance of the relationships.

School communities have the tendency to focus on punishment and rules when things go wrong, creating a punitive climate that is at odds with RA (Wachtel, 2005; Cameron and Thorsborne,

2001). This tendency to focus on punishment and rules may be a part of the “school ecology”. A school ecology is the combination of the “*structural, functional, and built aspects, coupled with personal interactions*”(Water *et al*, 2010, p. 1). Within a school these factors are all highly interdependent, therefore when trying to change any, the overall school ecology needs to be considered. The literature review chose to look at educational literature relating to school cultures, behaviour management, and authority in schools. The concept of a “school culture” is well-documented throughout educational literature, and this culture can have an effect on how effective the school is (Wilson *et al*, 2007). The culture will have an influence on every aspect of the day to day running of the school and is often described as “*the way we do things around here*” (Hargreaves, 1995). As can be seen by examining the educational literature and the RA literature, culture change is not a simple process. If a school is unable to change the foundations of its culture, then the implementation of RA will likely fall short (Cowie *et al*, 2008). The emphasis of this culture change is shifting mindsets away from punishment and toward a more relationship-centred school culture (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001). Culture change at this level is very difficult and various factors such as effective leadership, school ‘readiness’, and practical factors need to be carefully considered.

The importance of a healthy school culture is apparent throughout the literature. Behaviour management is particularly important as a certain amount of good order is essential for pupils to learn, and it is also directly linked to teachers morale, confidence and happiness (DfE, 2007). The formation of healthy, respectful relationships is seen as integral to behaviour management in a school (Marsh, 2012; Pianta, Hamre and Allen, 2012). These healthy relationships can lead to better pupil engagement which helps maintain a productive classroom environment where pupils are engaged with their work academically and socially (Simonsen *et al*, 2008; Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris, 2004). In turn, this leads to a school ecology that is relational and engaged, and therefore an ideal culture to implement RA. The different conceptualisations of teacher authority were reviewed in Chapter Two and the discussion was continued into Chapter Three, linking authority and RA. Authority is relatively under-theorised in educational literature, particularly considering it is a fundamental part of schooling. A number of conceptualisations were reviewed, however closely linking in with RA was the idea of a “pedagogical authority” (Harjunen, 2008). With a number of the other conceptualisation of authority in teachers, it can be seen why RA may be viewed as disrupting a teachers’ authority. With pedagogical authority, the basis of the authority is seen in the relationship between the teachers and pupils, rather than

something that is given or taken. If a teacher gains authority based on a relationship with the pupils and a view that discipline is an educational concept, then this means that they can use RA in a way where they still have authority. Similar to the idea of “school ecology”; but rather creating a relational ecology that is based on engagement and relationships, and will move the school away from disciplinary measures of control (Haber and Sakade, 2009).

In keeping with this is the idea of implementing RA within a “restorative milieu” and using a whole-school approach. The literature reviewed showed some promising positive results from evaluations. A re-occurring theme throughout the literature is that in order to be useful, RA needs to be utilised on a whole-school level (Hopkins, 2004; Bitel, 2001; Hopkins and Tyrrell, 2001; McCluskey *et al*, 2008). Restorative values and a restorative philosophy need to be introduced into the school as the basis of any more formal restorative processes. Moving away from a punitive mindset towards a relational mindset for individuals and for the school ecology is seemingly the biggest challenges for implementing RA in schools. There are a number of practical measures and issues that have been identified when implementing restorative approaches, these range from: the time taken to change the school philosophy; resistance from staff members; issues with implementation plans; who is introducing the changes; and, the feeling that pupils will not learn if they are not punished. Blood and Thorsborne (2005) developed a five stage implementation plan, its main focus being the setting of restorative foundations. The effort needed to change a school culture in this way should not be underestimated. Chapter Four will discuss the chosen methodology, that explores the implementation of RA in two schools and in particular investigate the areas of the school ecology that have been discussed in the preceding chapters.

## Chapter Four: Methodology

### 4.1 Introduction

For the current research a mixed methods approach was particularly appropriate in order to explore the phenomena in as much detail as possible. This was necessary due to the complexities of the two organisations being studied and a lack of similar previous research in the area. A mixed method dual-site case study research design was chosen in order to answer the research questions as fully as possible. The research design allows opportunities to explore the phenomenon of the implementation of RA in context, using a variety of different types of methods. When designing a mixed methods dual-site case study, the background and rationale behind the research design need to be carefully considered in order to produce a reliable research project. A case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. Triangulation is then used to make sense of the multiple data sources (Yin, 2003). The flexibility of a mixed methods approach is ideal for carrying out dual-site case studies, as it allows for multiple data sources from multiple sites (Sharp *et al*, 2012).

In this design, the quantitative and qualitative data is collected separately within the same time frame and integrated at the point of data interpretation. The qualitative data and analysis refine and explain the quantitative results by exploring participants views in depth and from different perspectives. The data analysis will consist of a descriptive account of each case site using both the quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis. The discussion will then go on to provide a comparative analysis across sites of qualitative and quantitative data, it will offer generalisations from commonalties and differences observed in the data, and provide a more holistic view of implementation. The case study design allows the research to explore both the organisational context and the individuals within the organisations, which permits the research to offer insights into both factors (Yin, 2003). The importance of the context and culture during any program implementation is discussed at length in the literature review and the research was created to address this. The purpose of the research is to find the effects of different individual, cultural and structural factors on the implementation of RA in schools with a view to help identify factors that can help ease the implementation of RA in schools. The methodology chapter will begin by providing a background for the case study sites that were researched. It will then move on to epistemological concerns before discussing the background to creating a mixed methods case

study research design in some detail, and outlining and analysing the specific design of this research project and the methods used to answer the research questions. Finally, the methodology chapter will provide some description of those who took part in each section of the research, and an in-depth discussion of the data analysis.

#### *4.1.1 Background*

The research was carried out in two schools - *School One* and *School Two*. The schools were selected due to links with the Youth Justice Service (YJS), the organisation that was implementing the RA in schools and this research was carried out with permission and support from the YYS. The Youth Justice Service were in the process of starting to implement a restorative approach in the schools at the time that the research began. The phenomenon under study is the implementation of RA in secondary schools, an investigation of how the school community and staff accept and use restorative approaches, and what factors affect this acceptance or rejection. The research will add to the existing literature on implementation of RA in schools, and will also give practitioners trying to implement RA an idea about the kind of factors that influence implementation. The YYS in an area of Wales implemented RA in *School One* and *School Two* as part of a pilot scheme that involved placing a restorative officer in each school. The restorative officer was placed in the school to provide restorative training for the staff and to provide conferences for the pupils. The schools have implemented the approaches in much the same way, with the same restorative officer.

*School One* and *School Two* each provided 4 days training to the senior and pastoral staff then offered restorative training on a voluntary basis for the other staff. To this end some of the staff have been trained up to the level of being able to carry out a restorative conference and then others in each school have no restorative training. In the 4 day training, senior and pastoral staff were trained by an outside trainer. This training was designed to enable individuals who took part to fully facilitate restorative processes. The training entailed delivering knowledge of the theoretical underpinnings of RA for schools, extensive development on a number of restorative skills ranging from informal to formal, and discussion about how RA can be sustained within a school. Some staff members then had briefer training that last half a day to a day. For this training the restorative officers provided a briefer copy of the programme above, mainly focusing on the theoretical background and practical application of restorative approaches. The majority of staff members received an RA awareness presentation: a two hour presentation that outlined the positive effects of RA and the basic skill sets, restorative questions and restorative conferences that could be used. This awareness presentation was put in place to try and encourage uptake of the more substantial

RA training, as the initial idea was that all staff would have a basic level of RA training, however in practice this has not happened due to time and staffing constraints.

The schools were using a targeted approach to implementing RA with the hope that the approaches would then rise in popularity and more staff would become interested in using RA. The added dimension of an outside agency implementing the RA is an interesting aspect of the research and could potentially illuminate whether this factor provides enablements or constraints on . Each of the schools is fairly large and rural, which means they have a varied demographic. Each school also has two “areas” in the school that are specifically related to behavioural and pastoral care: *Hafan* and *Encil*. “*Hafan*” which is the Welsh word for home is an area with specific staff where pupils can go if they are feeling unwell, anxious or need someone to talk to. Pupils are also able to work in *Hafan* if they do not feel they can work in the classroom. “*Encil*” is the Welsh word for retreat. Pupils are sent to *Encil* by members of staff as an alternative to exclusion. It is a small monitored room, where pupils are segregated and given work to complete by their teachers. Pupils can spend extended amounts of time here if a member of staff does not wish to have them in their classroom.

In each school, restorative conferences were mainly carried out by the restorative officer or the ‘restorative champions’ (members of staff who had the full training). The conferences were based on the restorative officer’s own training and involved preparation for parties involved, followed by the conference, an outcome (usually in the form of a contract that specified certain behavior), and finally follow-up meetings to provide additional support. The preparation involved ensuring all individuals with a stake in the incident wished to take part, and that the relevant parties are available, usually those who can contribute to a favourable outcome. The restorative officer would meet both the wrong-doer and the individual affected by the behaviour beforehand separately, and discuss with them what the ground rules of the conference, what outcomes they may want from the conference, and discuss the questions and issues that will be addressed beforehand. During the conference the restorative officer would follow a ‘restorative script’ that involved using restorative questions to create and maintain a dialogue with the participants. Restorative questioning usually begins with “can you tell us what happened?”, “what were you thinking at the time?”, “what have been your thoughts on this since?” and, “how has this affected you?”. All participants will be asked the same questions before return to the wrong-doer and discussing whether they can see the implication of their actions, and how they could potentially make things right. The outcome of this meeting would be a contract that would involve some alteration of behaviour or consideration of the impact of actions. The conference would always close on a positive note, and can be revisited



in the future to see whether the contract has been conformed to. The restorative conference is flexible and can be altered to address many different scenarios and used in instances where there is group conflict, or conflict between staff and students. Teachers who are ‘restorative champions’ were trained to carry out conferences in the same way. Teachers who did not have the full restorative training were also given the ‘restorative questions’ to use, rather than more traditional questions when wrongdoing occurred. Questions such as “what happened? what were you thinking at the time? how have you affected those around you?” were given to teachers as a way to move away from language associated with blame, and towards language that promotes respect, accountability, and responsibility.

#### *4.1.2 School One*

*School One* is a bilingual, mixed gender, 3-19 years old middle school with 1,086 pupils on roll, of the pupils 707 belonged to the secondary school age group. The school serves the small town it is situated in and the surrounding rural areas. On average over the past 3 years, 13.8% of pupils have been entitled to free school meals, lower than the national average of 17%. The school budget in 2013-14 was £4,733 per pupil. The pupil/teacher ratio is 15.3:1. As Estyn data on the school was not available at the time of this research, the research will use data from the national school categorisation system to provide context and some background information for the school.<sup>4</sup> The national school categorisation system provides a way of understanding of well each school is performing for its pupils, how effectively it is led and managed, and the level of support it needs in order to perform better. *School One* was identified as a yellow support category school, this means that the school is performing well and has identified and began to work on the areas where it needs to improve, with the right support the school has the potential to perform even better. The school prospectus states that its main ethos and values are a community where the welfare and attainment of every pupil is regarded as important, nurturing respect and responsibility within pupils, and, ensuring every pupil reaches their potential on an academic, personal and social level.

Alongside having the restorative officer and some staff having restorative training *School One*, also set up a restorative peer-mentoring scheme. The scheme involved providing training for older pupils of the school (15-18) to provide support for younger pupils. Mentors were given training in active listening, empathy, restorative questioning, and supporting other pupils.

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<sup>4</sup> Estyn is educational inspectorate for Wales

Mentors were then paired with pupils who may need additional support and guidance within the school. The mentors were able to provide support to other pupils in various issues, such as disagreements with other pupils and study skills and were put in place to improve relationships throughout the school. It was thought particularly helpful that the mentors be in place in order to direct the pupil to the appropriate support if needed, and to provide a trusted individual in the school that was not a staff member. The peer-mentoring programme was introduced to help develop and promote relationship building capacity within the school. Relationships are a vital part of a restorative school culture, and by aiming to build capacity in this way the school showed a dedication to RA and its central tenets.

#### *4.1.3 School Two*

*School Two* is an English language, mixed gender, 11-18 comprehensive school with 1,280 pupils on roll. The school is situated on a large site near to the town centre and serves the town as well as surrounding rural areas. Twelve percent of the pupils are entitled to free school meals, five percent lower than the national average. The school budget per pupil in 2013-14 was £4,540 per pupil. In the county area the maximum budget per pupil is £6,533 and the minimum is £4,050, school 2 is the sixth out of seven secondary schools in the area in term of school budget. At its last inspection Estyn determined the school as adequate, with an adequate chance of improvement. The national school categorisation also put the school in the yellow support category, the same as school one. The schools main aims when it comes to a school ethos are: an orderly, secure, happy learning environment; relationships based on courtesy and mutual respect; encouragement of responsible attitudes and behaviour; positive attitudes towards hard work and success; and, respect for spiritual and moral values, toleration towards other races, religions and those with disabilities.

## **4.2 Background to the Methodology**

### *4.2.1 Ontology and Epistemology*

Mixed methods research is increasingly being used as an alternative to more traditional, mono-method ways of collecting data in the social sciences (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2000; Greene *et al*, 1989; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, 2007a). Before even considering methods a researcher needs to establish themselves paradigmatically (Cameron, 2011). All social science research, from the choice of questions, to the methods chosen is a reflection of researchers' epistemological understanding of the world. This understanding can be implicit or explicit (Feilzer, 2010). However, the paradigmatic stances that mixed methods research should work under are still being debated throughout the literature. What is considered 'truth' is conceptualised differently by different

researchers and these paradigms then guide the research. Traditionalists would argue that quantitative research operates through a positivist paradigm whilst qualitative research operates under a constructivist paradigm; and that these two are in no way reconcilable. When designing a research project thoughts about epistemology and ontology need to be at the forefront of the researchers mind and will subtly guide the research throughout the whole project. Greene and Hall (2010) support the importance of a paradigm or framework in social inquiry as it is not possible to undergo any kind of research without understanding “*what it means to be an inquirer, what the purpose and role of such activity in society, and what a competent study looks like*” (p. 21). A pragmatic underpinning was chosen to guide the research and allows the researcher the best possible range of resources to answer the research questions.

One of the main issues for the mixed methods researcher is that by paying too little attention to philosophical ideas and traditions researchers under a mixed methods methodology may be “*insufficiently reflective and... insufficiently unproblematicized*” (Greene and Caracelli, 2003, p.17). This would create research that lacks depth and provides a superficial answer to research problems. Freshwater (2007) draws attention to the use of mixed methods research as a “*mindless mantra*” (p.135), rather than the thoughtful integration of methods and careful consideration of the paradigmatic assumptions related to the pragmatic stance. It has been argued that pragmatism can be viewed as an ‘easy way out’ of philosophical discussion or an a-paradigmatic stance; however this research will use pragmatism as a framework to guide the research towards the most useful ways of answering the research questions. By being less purists in terms of methods and preconceptions the world is opened up for the research. There is an implicit recognition throughout the research that any social inquirer planning on using a pragmatic stance to underlie mixed methods research has a proper understanding of the characteristics that constitute the pragmatic paradigm, as a result of this pragmatism will be discussed in some depth in this chapter.

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s the social sciences were involved in what have become known as ‘the paradigm wars’ where the positivist paradigm of quantitative research came under attack from researchers wanting to research under a constructivist paradigm (Reichhardt and Rallis, 1994). A newer generation of researchers condone a more nuanced, relevant and socially useful consideration than offered by either approach or the paradigm wars of the 70s and 80s (Rorty, 1999). Mixed methods research has been hailed as a response to these unproductive debates. Whilst some scholars maintain that the quantitative and qualitative divide is absolute, those who advocate mixed methods research have long been using pragmatism as a philosophical underpinning for their research. As a paradigm, pragmatism “*sidesteps the contentious issues of truth and reality*” (Feilzer, 2010, p.8)

and “*focuses instead on ‘what works’ as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation*” (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, p. 713). In one sense, using pragmatism as a paradigm to underlie research rejects the choice associated with the paradigm wars, as it rejects the distinction between realism and anti-realism. Greene (2008) contends that pragmatism comes from the rationale that when conducting mixed methods research the literature usually quotes incommensurable differences as reasoning against the mixing of methods. However, there is a steadily growing agreement amongst social scientists on the basic assumptions that underlie pragmatism as a philosophical orientation. The current research is using pragmatism as a philosophical underpinning to the research and not as a non-paradigmatic position that assumes independence of method and underlying theory (Feilzer, 2010).

Building on this, Biesta (2010) highlights a problematic facet of pragmatism in that two distinct ‘streams’ of pragmatism have been raised from the literature, these being a pragmatic justification for using different methods and pragmatism as a philosophical foundation of mixed methods research. It is argued that pragmatism should be used as a set of ‘philosophical tools’ to address problems created by other philosophical positions. Dewey pragmatism can often be seen as an ‘anti-philosophy’ as it shifts the focus to emphasise the interactions between humans and their environment (Dewey, 1924). Dewey proposed a framework that focuses on ‘transactions’ between the natural world and living organisms. These ‘experiences’ are the ways in which living organisms are involved in their environment. Dewey’s theory of action saw knowing as the mode of experience that supports actions (Greene and Hall, 2010). Therefore, some pragmatists believe that there is a reality, however, it is ever-changing based on our actions. One of the main arguments between post-positivist and pragmatist positions is that pragmatism is often seen as overly pessimistic due to their denial of ever finding a social ‘truth’. Rorty (1999) argues that researchers should no longer argue about most accurately representing reality, rather that research needs to be useful, in this sense pragmatists are seen as holding an antirepresentational view of knowledge.

Cherryholmes describes Deweyan pragmatism as:

*“Values and visions of human action and interaction precede a search for descriptions, theories, explanations, and narratives. Pragmatic research is driven by anticipated consequences. Pragmatic choices about what to research and how to go about it are conditioned by where we want to go in the broadest of senses... beginning with what he or she thinks and looking to the consequences he or she*

*desires, our pragmatist would pick and choose how and what to research and what to do” Cherryholmes, (1992, p.13)*

The drive behind researching under a pragmatic philosophy is that the research is value driven. The researcher decides what they want to research guided by what they think is important and what they think will be helpful (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Philosophers and researchers who are pragmatically inclined would argue that we can always find agreement about the importance of some values and desired ends, and that pragmatism takes an explicitly value-orientated approach to creating and answering research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This can be highlighted within the given research project; discipline in schools is a long debated topic that appeals to a wide-range of members in society and reaches further than individual classrooms. Feilzer (2010) suggests that the notion of utility of research can raise some difficult questions. However as a way around this, it is proposed that researchers assume that the notion of usefulness actually is calling for reflexivity in practice. Therefore any inquiry begs the questions “*who is it for*” and “*what is it for*” (Feilzer, 2010, p. 8). Pragmatism can be an attractive and useful philosophy to use, especially in research such as criminological or educational research where the need for research to be practical and useful is often vocalised by practitioners and researchers. The current research was designed to be particularly useful for school staff or practitioners wishing to implement restorative approaches. Doing research in a pragmatic manner does not expect to find unvarying causal links, rather to interrogate the research question with the most appropriate research methods in order to find practical, useful answers.

#### *4.2.2 The Importance of the Research Question*

The strongest mixed methods studies start with a strong research question that informs the design of the project and eventually the methods and analysis used (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). Addressing the research problem is one of the most important factors of research and pragmatism allows this to be done with a varying arsenal of research methods, therefore the single most important part of a research project is the question that drives the whole project (Brewer and Hunter, 1989; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). When trying to answer the research questions the researcher should be shamelessly eclectic in our use of methods to understand the problems (Rossman and Wilson, 1994). A mixed methods research question must embed both a quantitative research question and a qualitative research question, and must necessitate that both types of data be collected (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2006). The current research has been designed with a single overarching, hybrid question that contains both quantitative and qualitative components. This method of a single overarching question complimented by sub-questions has been chosen to

highlight the nature of mixing and the integration of the data needed to answer the question as fully as possible (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007b). Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) discuss at length how the goals of the study and research question guide the mixed methods approach. The decided goal of the research project was to understand the complex phenomena relating to the implementation of RA in schools; and how it is understood, accepted, and utilised. As a progression from the purpose of the research, it was decided that the research objective was an exploratory one, with a desire to explore the phenomena occurring and increase understanding about the best practice when implementing RA in schools.

#### **4.2.3 Research Questions**

##### **Main Research Question**

What are the individual, cultural and structural factors that affect the implementation of restorative approaches in schools?

##### **Sub-questions**

In what ways did the existing school culture have an influence on the implementation of restorative approaches?

What factors affected the teachers perception of the implementation and use of restorative approaches?

Did the way teachers enact authority affect their acceptance and use of restorative approaches?

How did the training and involvement of outside agency affect the implementation of restorative approaches?

How did the pupils recognise the implementation of restorative approaches?

The research design was created in order to allow for the questions to be individually answered in order to get an in-depth look at implementation, but also to allow for cross-site comparisons to look for contextual nuances or similarities that allow for greater generalisation.

#### **4.3 Contrast with previous research in the field**

This section will briefly discuss the methodologies utilised in the main RA in schools evaluations that have taken place in the UK in order to situate the research project amongst the current literature on the use of RA in schools.

### *Bristol RAiS Evaluation*

Skinns *et al* (2009) provided an evaluation of the Bristol RAiS implementation. The Bristol research took place across 6 schools and used a combination of quantitative data provided by the local authority and qualitative data in the form of interviews with members of staff and pupils in the school. The quantitative data collected provided by the local authority was primarily on attendance, exclusions and attainment may not have offered the most stable measure as it was not collected for the purposes of the research. Across the 6 schools the total number of staff interviews was 34 and the total number of pupil interviews was 26. This is a relatively low number considering the research involved six schools. Across the six schools their research was a less in-depth investigation of the issues that the research aimed to investigate, mainly due to time constraints and issues with access. The case study design used for the research allows for a more in-depth look at the implementation of RA using a variety of different methods.

### *Youth Justice Board Evaluation*

Bitel (2005) undertook a large scale evaluation of the use of RA on a national level. Their evaluation methodology was similar to Skinns *et al* (2009) whereby they used a mix of readily available quantitative data, and then collected qualitative data in the form of interviews. Data was collected continuously from September 2001 until March 2004 from programme and non-programme schools. This data included key contextual and performance indicatory data, such as exclusions, attendance, and percentage of pupils receiving free school meals. Pupils in Years 7 and 9 received victimisation questionnaires before the interventions were introduced and again afterwards. This took place in 14 of the programme schools, and 9 of the non-programme schools. A survey was developed to measure the experience and views of the staff in the schools, 582 were collected as a baseline measures with 487 as a follow up in programme schools. There were pre and post conference interviews held with participants, facilitators and supporters, with 538 pre-conference interviews and 166 post-conference interviews. Finally, open-ended, semi-structured interviews were held with 85 key stakeholders across the schools. Again due to the large scale of the research it did not collect the same in-depth holistic view of the implementation that the current research will, particularly with regards to the context that RA is being implemented into in each school.

### *Three Scottish Counties Evaluation*

McCluskey *et al* (2007) carried out another large scale evaluation in Scotland, focussing on three different counties all implementing restorative approaches. The aims of their research project were similar to that of this research project, with an interest in how different participants respond to restorative approaches, to identify characteristics of the schools that contribute to positive or negative outcomes, and to explore what affects school-level implementation. The data collection for McCluskey *et al*'s research was not dissimilar to the collection methods used for this research, it involved: staff and pupil interviews, observations, staff and pupil survey, school statistical data, documentary analysis, and focus groups. However, again due to the large scale of the evaluations the evaluation was unable to paint a whole picture of the context of each school and the number of interviews and observations for each school were all relatively low compared to the current research. This research will provide insight in to the importance of the context of the implementation and those involved in the implementation in a way similar to McCluskey *et al*, but also provide more depth of analysis.

### *Durham implementation*

Kokotsaki (2013) carried out a review of the implementation of RA in two secondary schools in the Durham Local Authority. In this evaluation, the two projects schools were contrasted against a school of similar demographic that was not implementing restorative approaches. The data was collected in two phases, Phase I and Phase II, which were collected at the beginning and end of the three-year implementation period. Data collected was: staff interviews; pupil interviews; parent interviews; pupil questionnaires; pupil attitudinal questionnaires; a 'learning walk'; and school data. The research was similar to the current research as it aimed to evaluate the pupil and teachers perspectives on the implementation of restorative approaches. The current research provides a more explicit look at the authority relationships in schools and how these are conceptualised, and provides a more exploratory approach. However, the current research is not looking to prove causality of RA making certain changes in the school, rather it is exploring how the current school culture affects implementation.

By utilising a pragmatic mixed methods approach to investigate the implementation of RA, the work differentiates itself from other research in the field. Evaluations in the field of RA in education tend to be large scale empirical designs that aim to make generalisations and seek causal implications (McCold, 2002; McCold and Wachtel, 2002; PiE, 2005). In order to implement RA successfully it is important to study the phenomenon on both a larger and smaller scale. Using a different approach to other research, the research will strike balance between the empirical and



interpretivist work and illuminate factors that had perhaps not been considered beforehand. Whilst vital that these large scale evaluations take place they do not always allow for an in-depth look at implementation of RA. For that reason, research on the scale of the current study may enable us to have some insight into why RA is not always successful or accepted.

## **4.4 The Research Design**

### **4.4.1 Mixed Methods Research**

In order to answer the research questions in a meaningful, helpful way the question calls for the flexibility and usefulness that mixed methods research under a pragmatic paradigm allows. Instead of being restrained by a single paradigm mixed methods allows the research to be both objective and subjective; deductive and inductive; and to highlight areas of further interest for the research. One of the key issues is that the mixed methods research will allow the research to answer the questions in a way that is more helpful than just the sum of the individual qualitative and quantitative parts (Bryman, 2007). Flexibility is afforded that is not available from other paradigms (Johnson and Onweugbuzie, 2004). Mixed methods research is most notably helpful in exploring variations in the construction of meaning of concepts in relation to how participants make sense of their experience (Bergman, 2011); making it ideal as the research facilitates insight into how staff and pupils make sense of the implementation of the RA in their school. For the current research the social constructions of meaning gathered from interviews helped validate the other data, but also created a complementary subset of results that overall enhanced the data and findings. The instruments used were created to find out the ideology of an individual with regards to pupil control and RJ ideology, creating an opportunity for exploration of the behaviour management philosophies in each school. Findings from the staff interviews, observations and pupils focus groups also interweave to create a holistic story of how different members of the school communities are experiencing RA and behaviour management.

When a researcher chooses to use pragmatism as a philosophical basis for their research, on some level the epistemological concerns will filter to methodological concerns, and then decisions regarding methods used to answer the research questions. Due to pragmatists' view of the measurable world being made up of different elements, some objective, some subjective, the research design needs to be a reflection of this (Feilzer, 2010). A mixed methods methodology delivers this, and compliments the use of a pragmatic philosophical underpinning as a mixture of subjective and objective methods can be used. Mixed methods research should instead aim to fit together both qualitative and quantitative research in to a workable and useful solution, that offers

the best ways in which to answer the research question. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) advocate the use of a needs-based approach to creating a research design. With regards to this research it meant being able to combine the use of validated quantitative scales, alongside qualitative data that can help to provide a narrative of the implementation of RA.

Mixed methods research is a continually growing and contentious issues throughout varied disciplines. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003, p.5) define the methodology behind mixed methods as *“The broad inquiry logic that guides the selection of specific methods and that is informed by conceptual positions common to mixed methods practitioners (e.g. the rejection of “either-or” choices at all levels of the research process)”*. Due to the pragmatic philosophical underpinning of the research, this researches question drives the need for a mixed methods research design. The quantitative and qualitative components were of equal weighting and will be employed concurrently, due to this there was no supplemental component. The point of interface between the data was during interpretation in order to create ‘the bigger picture’ of the quantitative and qualitative data combined.

Newman *et al* (2003) identified nine goals for conducting research and elaborated that in mixed methods research, the research goal can have more than one. With this in mind, the goals of this study are to add to the knowledge base, understand complicated phenomena and to hopefully have an impact on how the implementation of RA is carried out. Collins, Onwuegbuzie, and Sutton (2006) also state that it is vital for mixed methods researchers to provide a valid rationale for mixing methods and they conceptualised four major rationales. Under their conceptual framework of rationales this research falls under the *significance enhancement* rationale, as the research is aiming to maximise the interpretation of the findings. The research design chosen to answer the question will be discussed later on in the section in depth. As the practice of mixed methods research has grown, so has the literature base that discusses the need for new theoretical framework and guidance for the mixed method researcher. Greene and Caracelli (1989) identified various justifications and typologies of mixed methods research that have then been built upon by academics such as Creswell and Plano Clark (2006) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003). Sammons *et al* (2005) argue that research in schools justifies the use of mixed methods research where *“complex and pluralistic social contexts demand analysis that is informed by multiple and diverse perspectives”* (p.221), implying that the research is strengthened by the use of a mixed methods design.

For this research, the main purpose of mixing methods is for reasons of triangulation and complementarity. Complementarity involves clarifying meaning and more fully explaining the results, it is where different methods are used to investigate different aspects or dimensions but the intention is to obtain convergent evidence (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). As an example, the research is using focus groups with the pupils to gauge how they view behaviour management in the school and semi-structured interviews with the staff in order to find out how they view behaviour management, this will provide a database of research investigating different aspects of the implementation of RA. Triangulation is obtaining complementary quantitative and qualitative data on the same topic, bringing together the different strengths of the two methods. For this research project, triangulation will be acquired across the questionnaire, interviews and classroom observations. The current research aims to use the mixed methods to elaborate and enhance the results whilst measuring different facets of a single phenomenon. Mixed methods research provides more potential for the research design to answer the research question in a way that will provide a better picture of the complex social phenomena that occurs when RA is implemented in to a school. The allowance of both inductive and deductive reasoning in the research design is sympathetic to the way that we handle problems in real life, through using complex methods to debate and describe them, and this can ultimately allow a broader picture of the implementation and what can be done to improve it. The research plan is designed to produce more valid and robust, but also enriched results than either quantitative or qualitative would alone.

#### **4.4.2 Case Study Research**

A case study is an approach that is used to generate an in-depth, multi-faceted understanding of a complex issue in its real-life context. Bromley (1990) describes a case study as “*a systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest*” (p.302). Case studies can be used to *explain*, *explore* or *describe* events or phenomena in the everyday contexts in which they occur and provide a naturalistic understanding of the issues (Yin, 2009; Crowe *et al*, 2011). For this reason the case study particularly lends itself to answering the *how*, *what* and *why* questions that are being asked by the research. This means that additional insight into *how* an implementation is being received, *what* gaps exist in the implementation and *why* different strategies may provide different result can be gained (Crowe *et al*, 2011). The case study provides the ideal approach to answer the research questions posed. The mixed methods dual-site design chosen facilitates exploration of the phenomenon within its naturalistic context. The mixed methods aspect allows the phenomenon to be explore through a variety of lenses, and from a variety of perspectives. The deliberate investigation of contextual conditions and the belief that they may be highly pertinent to the implementation of RA means that a case study design is ideal for the

research project (Yin, 2003). Yin (2003) states four situations where a research project should use a case study approach, the following all apply to this research project: (a) the study wishes to answer “why” and “how” questions; (b) the behaviour of those involved in the study cannot be manipulated; (c) the context of the research is believed to be important to the phenomenon being researched; or (d) there is an unclear boundary between the phenomenon being researched and the context. This amounts to case study research being particularly appropriate for the current research.

Case study research is helpful when research is trying to provide a ‘complete story’. Case studies tend to either follow one of two designs: a single case study where a single case is looked at in depth, or a multiple case study where several cases are looked at. In the multiple case study, the phenomenon and context are examined in the same depth and way but there is improved generalisability of the findings (Galloway and Sheridan, 1993). The flexibility of mixed methods research means that they can be especially suitable for dual-site case study research projects (Sharp *et al*, 2012), because often the dual-site case study aims to provide a wider view of the phenomenon from multiple perspectives. Using this approach will allow for an in-depth analysis of each school separately, and permit comparisons between the two schools to be drawn.

#### **4.4.3 The research design: combining mixed methods research and case study research**

There are many mixed methods research designs, however the one commonality they all share is an emphasis on the research question or problem guiding the overall study. The research relies up on a mixed methods dual-site case study design, in which each participating organisation (n=2) is conceptualised as a ‘case’. Miles and Huberman (1994) define a case as “*a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. The case is, in effect your unit of analysis*” (p. 25). The research combines the study of two specific sites for an exploration of the various contexts in which RA might be implemented, to provide a broader basis for generalisation. In each school the data will be collected under a concurrent parallel design. As previously mentioned, the purpose of mixed methods research in this study is for complementarity and triangulation purposes (Greene *et al*, 1989). The research project can be designed to utilise both the triangulation and complementarity purposes as the mixture of methods used are covering the same levels of the phenomena using different methods, but also differing levels of the same phenomena using different methods. For example, using quantitative scales and interviews in order to explore teachers ideas around behaviour management. The instruments and methods used to compile the research projects were designed to give overlapping results in order to tell as full as possible a story, checking results in order to corroborate between datasets.

Yin (2003) argues that a case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life contexts, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. This design has been used as it is a useful approach when it is difficult to control potentially confounding variables as it is in complex organisations such as schools. Using a dual-site case study mixed methods design is beneficial for this research as it will provide a description of the real-world cases, allow space to illustrate certain features of the cases, can explain specific features of the case and the relationship to other cases, and can explore the situations in which the implementations were conducted. This is ideal to answer a variety of questions regarding how the individuals within the context view the implementation of restorative approaches. The allowance for the use of multiple sources and types of data, the difficulty in controlling variables, and the interest in the context of the implementation all provide a basis for the research design. The design was created with the objective of possessing a thorough understanding of the schools within which the RA were implemented, in order to provide a holistic view of the implementation. Case studies are particularly useful when trying to determine the internal dynamics of a change process within an organisation, and when done across two cases allow the research to try and ascertain how contextual factors have an impact on the implementation of RA (Yin, 2003). By illuminating the experiences, implications and effects of the implementation of RA across both settings, wider understandings of RA and how they are affected by different structural, cultural and individual factors can emerge.

The data will be collected using a concurrent parallel design, in both of the separate sites. The research will be collected using concurrent timing in the same phase of the research project, both types of data are of equal importance, and the strands will be kept independent during analysis but mixed during the overall interpretation (Creswell and Clark, 2011). The concurrent parallel design has many different names but remains one of the well-known approaches to mixing methods (Creswell and Clark, 2011). Morse (1991) describes the purpose of the concurrent design to “*obtain different but complementary data on the same topic*” (p.122) to best answer the research questions. The current design was chosen to allow the synthesis of complimentary qualitative and quantitative data to develop a more complete understanding of the phenomenon being researched, and to compare multiple levels within the organisation (Creswell and Clark, 2011). As the research will explore the contextual conditions and not just isolated variables, a dual-site mixed method case study provides adequate room for macro and micro investigations. The dual-site case study provides a broader case for generalisation than that of a standard case study; as it allows the researcher to combine the study of a specific site whilst exploring the various contexts in which the RA can be implemented (Simons, 1996). The design provides a structure that allows for the generalisability of cross-site comparison and similarities, without sacrificing the understanding of each separate site

(Herriott and Fireston, 1983). Whilst gaining an in-depth understanding of each site, the comparison of sites “*can establish the generality of a finding or explanation, and at the same time, pin down the condition under which that finding will occur*” (Miles and Huberman, 1984, p.151). The research design ensures that the data collected across both sites in the research is the same; this is to allow the same units of data to be looked at in light of the same research question (Mills *et al*, 2010).

One of the challenges associated with a mixed methods research project is designing a project with an underlying understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative methods that allow them to be combined in a way that the resulting combination is likely to result in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses (Brewer and Hunter, 1989; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Johnson and Turner (2003) refer to this as the *fundamental principles of mixed research*. Bergman (2011) argues that rather than emphasise and separate limitations of quantitative and qualitative methods, a good mixed methods design will deal with the limitations to improve on the limits of the methods. The different methods used to create the research design were made to; inform supplement, and validate each other because they either address similar or differing levels of the phenomenon; and, are taken from different research strategies. The research design was created in order to integrate the data at the analysis phase and transcend the forced dichotomy of quantitative and qualitative methods and present the data in ways that are integrated and dependent on each other.

The methods within the research design consists of: a questionnaire given to members of staff in both schools, that consists of two validated instruments (Pupil Control Ideology and RJ Ideology); semi-structured interviews with some members of staff; observations of classroom teaching for some members of staff and, finally, focus groups in each of the schools consisting of different groups of pupils. The combination of methods have been pieced together in order to provide complimentary strengths and weaknesses, illuminate the phenomenon under study, and provide corroboration. The data analysis component of the research will contain a detailed descriptive account from each of the schools, comparative analysis across the sites, and then offer generalisations from commonalities and differences observed in the data. The data analysis techniques will be addressed at the end of the methodology chapter.

## 4.5 Ethics

Ethical considerations are a vital component of any research project, and form the backbone of any research design. They are a highly pertinent part of a research project and dictate a lot of the ways in which the research will be carried out. At all times the current complied with the British Society of Criminology code of ethics, Aberystwyth University's Code of Practice for Research and the Data Protection Act (2003). The research successfully passed departmental and university ethics review boards and the research followed all professional conduct codes that applied. It was vital for the researcher to understand that the ultimate decision of correct moral conduct could come down to them at any possible point in the research. The ultimate decision often comes down to the researcher in real world research due to the researcher being the only individual who has an in-depth knowledge of the research situation. The researcher can often be the only individual available to see any harm a research project may be causing, due to the relationship between researcher and participants. At the heart of ethical scrutiny for any research project is the attempt to balance any risk of harm to participants with the potential benefits that the research could have for school staff, pupils, parents, organisations etc. A strong awareness of the ways in which the research can cause harm is paramount to any research project.

When considering ethical issues the commitment to achieving valid results is a vital starting point and needs to be carefully considered. This means commitment to building a strong research design and carrying out the research in a fair, respectful and sensitive manner. The reporting of the methods and data collection in an open and honest way also goes a way towards creating ethically sound and strong research. The most important ethical principle is a recognition of the responsibility the research has to ensure the physical, social and psychological well-being of any participant in the research. It is important for the researcher to recognise their responsibility to protect the rights of the participants' interests, sensitivities and privacy. Another cornerstone of Western research is basing the research on the freely given informed consent of participants. In order to minimise risk of harm to research participants all aspects of the research must be scrutinised and analysed in order to cater for as wide a range of issues as can be anticipated, and have guidelines in place in order for these issues to be dealt with. Specific ethical considerations that were relevant to this project will now be discussed.

Before RA was started in the schools the pupils were sent home with consent forms asking whether the parents were happy for their children to take part in any restorative processes and the research that accompanied them (Appendix I). Due to the nature of the research and its focus on the staff of the schools it was deemed appropriate that this was sufficient consent to observe the classroom as

the research was investigating teaching methods and not the pupils themselves. Generally, as the activity would have been occurring anyway and the activity is merely being observed the risk of any harm to the pupils is so low that it is not seen as ethically problematic. When pupils participated in the focus groups the pupils were given an information sheet to read and this was also explained to them. Consent was then explained to them and they could decide if they wanted to partake in the focus group, they were also invited to ask questions about the research. As the focus group was not asking questions of a personal nature it was decided that this was sufficient consent. However, with children issues that are not easily predicted can often arise and it had to be decided in advance that if issues surrounding child protection were raised then the appropriate authorities would be contacted.

Farrimond (2013) states the three key questions for designing research that involves children at some level:

1. *Who benefits from the research project? What are the specific risks and benefits to the children involved? (e.g. distress, interest in project, opportunity to speak and be heard)*
2. *What are the scenarios in which this research will take place? (e.g. classroom, on the street) How do these present issues concerning vulnerability and powerlessness and how will these be tackled?*
3. *Who are the participants? Are only adults included, or are children's voices also heard? Are any groups of children excluded, and if so, why?*

(Farrimond, 2013, p.173)

The current research project was designed in order to balance the need for the pupils voice in the research, as important members of the school community, but also so there was no unnecessary intrusion to the pupils involved in the research. Focus groups were decided on as a reasonable option in order to gain insight into the pupils views on the implementation of RA, but without the possibly ethical complications that arise when one-on-one interviews are held with pupils. Interviews are seen as more ethically problematic as with children and teenagers it is often not known what sensitive information they will disclose or discuss in an interview, that can then lead to ethical issues for the researcher. Though the nature of the research deems it relatively low risk, there always needs to be certain guidelines in place to deal with unexpected problems arising such as participants in distress or complaints about the research or researcher. The ethical consideration that were considered at length are displayed in the table below.



Ethical Consideration	Process Undertaken
Informed Consent	<p>The school gave the research permission to carry out the research after reviewing what would be included. All participants who took part did so on a completely voluntary basis and were provided with enough information about the research to make this decision. All staff were emailed a summary of the research before they were asked to fill out the questionnaire, and an information page detailing the research. Although the school selected participants for observations, they were still informed fully of the research and were informed that it was completely voluntary. With regards to the focus groups, the purpose of the research was explained to the beforehand by school staff and the researcher, the pupils were invited to ask questions beforehand and then sign a consent form if they were happy to take part. At the beginning of the research, the school provided the all pupils parents with an information sheet of whether they permitted their child to participate in RA and accompanying research. (See Appendix I)</p>
Confidentiality and anonymity	<p>All participants, staff and pupils, were informed that they were entitled to confidentiality of any information that they provided and that it would be completely anonymised if it was to be used in the thesis. Participants were also informed that the breach of confidentiality would only take place in exceptional circumstances e.g. those involving the safety of a participant or child protection matters.</p>
Right to withdraw	<p>Participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the research both in writing and in conversation. With regards to interview participants, they were informed that once the thesis had been submitted their interview could not be withdrawn. Focus group members were informed that the data could not be deleted, as it would be difficult to ascertain who said what.</p>
Data storage, access, and disposal	<p>The data was stored in accordance with Data Protection Act (2003). Data was stored on the secure University system or in a locked filing cabinet. Data that was collected on a dictaphone was transcribed, then the recordings were deleted.</p>

*Table two: Ethical Considerations*

#### ***4.5.1 Permissions Needed***

The research sought permission from all organisations and individuals involved in the research. As the research was done in conjunction with the Youth Justice Service for England and Wales they reviewed the research and cleared it. The next step was to meet directly with those in charge in each that the research was hoping to gain access to. Each schools agreed to participate in the research and wished to be kept up-to-date with the research findings, and be provided with reports on the research. Although the head teachers of the schools agreed to take part in the research, the researcher also felt it necessary for ethical reasons to ensure that any individual within the school had the option to not be part of the research if they did not want to be. Due to the nature of the research it was necessary for the research to also gain permission from the Aberystwyth University Ethical Review board. The ethical aspect of the research has provided an important foundation for the research design to be built upon and the specific research methods decided upon will now be discussed.

### **4.6 Research Methods**

#### ***4.6.1 Data Collection***

There are several phases in data collection that comprise the data collection section of any research study. These phases are sampling procedures, permissions, types of information collected, forms for recording the data, and the activities involved in administering the data collection (Creswell and Plano Clarke, 2006). These phases will be discussed in the next section. The data collection, legitimisation analysis and interpretation are all cyclical and interactive steps, even more so when applying a mixed method research design. The steps will each be discussed now in their separate implementations.

#### ***4.6.2 Sampling***

An important step in any research process is the sampling of participants, as it helps inform the quality of inferences made by the researcher (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). It is important for mixed methods researchers to make explicit the sampling design of the study. In a mono-method study the sampling technique is chosen by considering two important factors: the number of participants and how these participants are chosen (Collins, 2010). The process of sampling becomes far more complex when using a mixed methods research design. Generally, when carrying out quantitative research the aim is the generalisability of your findings to other situations/populations. When carrying out qualitative research the aim is a high degree of internal validity which means the degree to which we can trust the conclusions made by the researcher. There is a false dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative sampling (Onwuegbuzie and

Collins, 2007), and in reality some degree of generalisability of inferences is of importance to all types of research (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Teddlie and Yu (2007) conclude that when carrying out mixed methods research, the researcher will always have to make a compromise based on the requirements of the quantitative and qualitative samples in their study, and they call this the representativeness/saturation trade off. This will represent one of the limitations of this study, the quantitative sample will be larger than the qualitative sample. For the purpose of triangulation this presents a problem as the purpose of triangulation is to corroborate and validate data between the different collection methods. However, if trying to corroborate data with different sample sizes this can prove problematic in gaining validity.

When deciding on a mixed method sampling scheme there are two factors useful in assisting with the design. These factors are whether the mixed methods research design is sequential or concurrent and the relationship of the quantitative and qualitative samples (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). For this research design, the timing of the research is concurrent and the relationship between the qualitative and quantitative strands most closely resembles a multilevel relationship. A multilevel relationship refers to taking different samples from different levels of the study, for example, focus groups carried out with the pupils in the schools and interviews carried out with teachers in the school. Kemper *et al* (2003) define multilevel mixed methods sampling as occurring “*when probability and purposive sampling techniques are used on different levels of the study (e.g. student, class, school district)*” (p. 287). Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) create a mixed methods research sampling design framework in order to show some of the ways that samples can be taken for mixed methods design. The mixed methods sampling design this research is using is the concurrent, multilevel sampling scheme. There are several very important factors that need to be considered when creating a sampling design, and as has been demonstrated throughout the methodology the research question is of importance to the mixed methods pragmatic design. The concurrent design and the purpose of the mixing of methods (triangulation and complementarity) all assist in creating an appropriate sampling design. It is important that the samples selected create sufficient data to adequately answer the research question with robust description (Kemper *et al*, 2003; Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007), by doing this representativity and validity is increased.

The research designs representation can be improved by ensuring that the sampling decisions stem from the research goal (adding to the knowledge base; organisational impact; understanding complex phenomena: Newman *et al*, 2003), the research objective, the rationale for mixing methods the purpose of the study (augmenting interpretation of findings: Collins, Onwuegbuzie, and Sutton, 2006), and the research questions. Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Jiao (2007) also note with regards to

sampling that the sampling methods that are chosen for the qualitative and quantitative components must generate adequate data, must help the researcher to obtain data saturation, and allow the researcher to make statistical or analytical generalisations. The sampling design should allow the researcher to be able to make generalisations to other participants, settings, contexts, locations, experiences, or processes (Collins, Onwuegbuzie, and Jiao, 2007). By using a sampling design that allows researchers to combine both sets of data in to a coherent whole (metainferences: Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003) the challenge of data integration and interpretation can be reduced. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) adapted the frameworks of (Patton, 1990) and Miles and Huberman (1994) to identify 24 sampling schemes that qualitative and quantitative researchers have at their disposal. These 24 sampling schemes either fall into random sampling or non-random sampling schemes.

According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) there are three main types of generalisations: (a) statistical generalisations where the research makes generalisations or inferences on data that has been extracted from a representative statistical sample to the population from which the sample was drawn), (b) analytical generalisations where they can be applied to wider theory based on how selected cases fit with general constructs and (c) case-to-case transfer where the research makes generalisations about one case based on a similar case). The sampling design of any research projects plays a large part in the generalisations that the research can make, usually quantitative data lends itself to statistical generalisations whereas qualitative data lends itself to analytical generalisation or case-to-case transfers.

The term *interpretive consistency* was formulated by Collins, Onwuegbuzie, and Jiao (2006) to signal the consistency between the sampling scheme used by the research design and the inferences made by the researchers. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) provide a framework to identify rigorous sampling design and to assist with classifying a research design in the literature in regards to their sampling strategy. The two-dimensional sampling model provides a framework through which sampling can be categorised according to the timing of the components and the relationship of the qualitative and quantitative samples. When a concurrent timing orientation is used, as is with this research design, then the data is collected independently from each other, however the data is then integrated at a later point. The relationship of the qualitative and quantitative sampling in this research is a multilevel design, as the samples are drawn from different levels of the organisation. The quantitative sample is convenience based, where the questionnaire will be given out to all members of staff in each of the schools. The qualitative components are based on mixed purposeful sampling, where some will be selected due to the typical nature of their cases and others to be chosen because their inclusion provides the research with specific insight in to the phenomenon of

interest. As the questionnaire is given out all members of staff, those staff members selected for interviews and observations will have completed a questionnaire and this provides added validity as the data can be more easily converged.

For the quantitative component of the research design, the questionnaire, the procedure is intended to focus on forming overall view of each school. With the qualitative components of the design, the focus groups, observations and interviews, the aim is to yield information rich cases. By combining these two the aim is to create two databases of complementary data that contain both depth and breadth of information surrounding the phenomenon under study. The quantitative strand of the research will have probability sampling techniques utilised, whilst the qualitative strand utilises purposive sampling techniques. The results of all the considerations that need to be taken into account requires multiple sampling techniques in order to best answer the research question. The sampling for the research design will take place as follows:

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Sampling Type</b>
Sampling schools within the area	Purposive in order to use schools that are implementing restorative approaches
Sampling staff for questionnaire	Purposive sampling. All staff members will be given a questionnaire and all have an equal chance of being included however the research can obviously only use questionnaires that have been returned.
Sampling classrooms for observations	Purposive sampling in order to view typical cases but also those who are trained in RA and various teaching styles.
Sampling staff for interviews	Purposive in order to interview some staff who had been observed and also to interview members of senior staff, and members of staff who work in the behavioural units (Hafan/Encil)
Sampling pupils	Purposive sampling in order to have a mix of age ranges, those who have been through RA and those who haven't.

*Table three: sampling types*

For the purpose of this research, the sampling scheme was decided beforehand. However, this was left flexible so if important samples were identified they could be included. This shows a similarity to a 'snowball approach' where new samples may be identified as important over the course of the research. The pragmatic underpinning allows for this type of flexibility as it involves sampling the appropriate individuals in order to guide the research and answer the research questions.

#### 4.6.3 Validity/reliability/legitimation/inferences

With rapid growth in the field of mixed methods research, concerns have arisen regarding whether mixed methods research has something to offer beyond what the typical methodologies can offer independently or whether it's just the latest trend in research methods (Bergman, 2010). The issue of how to assess the validity and reliability of mixed methods research is an essential one in the debate over the value of mixed methods as a distinct methodological framework. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2006) argue that there needs to be an integrative framework for assessing the quality of inferences made by mixed methods research. They believed that mixed method researchers “*should adopt a common nomenclature transcending the separate QUAL and QUAN orientations when the described processes (QUAL and QUAN) are highly similar and when appropriate terminology exists*” (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003, p.12). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2006) argue that instead of discussing validity and reliability in mixed methods research, we should really refer to the *inference quality*. Inferences are interpretations that are made on the basis of the data from which they are derived. They propose this because all research is intended to make inferences regardless of the associated interpretation, validity is a term best associated with quantitative research, and there are so many different versions of the word it is not useful anymore.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) conceptualised that *inference quality* as having two main components: design quality and interpretive rigour. This was then proposed as part of an integrative model of quality by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2006). The framework was designed to enable mixed methods researchers to reconcile the two sets of standard for assessing the validity/credibility. The use of the integrative framework allows the research to make meta-inferences and go beyond what the quantitative and qualitative strands can explain alone. In order to make quality inference, the purpose for mixing the study must initially be considered. For the purpose of this research, the mixed method study must provide a more complete picture of the phenomenon than the qualitative or quantitative strands did alone. Due to the parallel nature of the research design, the purpose for mixing has been known from the start whereas with other research designs the purpose for mixing can often be revealed later on in the project due to the nature of the data collection.

*Design quality* refers to whether the most appropriate procedures have been used and whether they have been implemented effectively. The four basic standards of design suitability are: *design suitability* which is the degree to which the method of study was appropriate for answering the questions and were they appropriately translated in to all elements of the design (e.g. sampling, data collection); *design adequacy* which is whether all the elements of the design were implemented adequately; *within design consistency* which is whether all the elements of the design pieced

together in a cohesive manner; and, *analytic adequacy* which is checking whether all the data analysis techniques used were appropriate for answering the research questions. *Inference rigour* relates to the degree to which credible interpretations have been of the results. There are five criteria to meet for this section: *interpretive consistency* which is whether the inferences made were consistent with each other and with the results of the data analysis; *theoretical consistency* relates to the inferences being consistent with the the current theories and literature in the field); *interpretive agreement* discerns whether if other researchers were doing the research they would reach the same conclusions; *interpretive distinctiveness* refers to the necessity of making the strongest and most plausible conclusions from the study; and, *integrative efficacy* which determines whether the degree to inferences made in each strand of mixed methods study are effectively integrated into a theoretical consistent meta-inference (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2006, p.113). As well as adhering to the validity/reliability needs of each separate research method the research has used this *inference quality* framework as a guide throughout the research process and therefore gained a high level of inference quality.

#### **4.6.4 Instruments**

The questionnaires that were handed out to all members off staff in both the schools were made up of the Pupil Control Ideology form and RJ Ideology form. These are two separate scales, that were administered at the same time for ease of participating. The RJ Ideology (RJI) form (Roland *et al*, 2012) was developed as an instrument to measure the degree to which an individual holds traits that are in line with a RJ ideology. Of importance to the researchers were self-efficacy, empathy, and personal stress as factors in measuring the RJI of an individual. It is believed that like other traits, some individuals will hold attitudes and beliefs that are more in line with a more restorative ideology. The RJI has not been widely used in research, so the PCI scale was chosen as well, as this has a high reliability rating amongst the research it has been used in.

The Pupil Control Ideology form (PCI) is a single dimension Likert type scale, which places teachers on a continuum from humanistic to custodial (Willower *et al*, 1967). Humanistic orientation was evident in an “educational community” atmosphere, where there was a sense of trust of pupils to be self-disciplined. Custodial orientations were distinguished by the presence of a highly controlled classroom atmosphere where maintenance of order was seen as of the utmost importance. Teachers in these classrooms were thought to be more authoritarian with a strict sense of the importance of power relations within the classroom. These teachers were mistrusting of pupils. In order to identify and measure these PCI positions, Willower *et al*, (1967) developed the PCI Form. This instrument continues to be a good fit with theories of teaching and learning (Hoy,

2001). The RJI scale and PCI scale were administered together in a questionnaire that also collected basic data on the individuals completing it, for example, their job role, age, gender, whether they had had any restorative training, and career length. Between both schools, 58 questionnaires were returned to the researcher.

A wider uptake of staff filling out the questionnaires in both schools would have strengthened the research; however this is a common concern with the use of questionnaire in research. In terms of the questionnaires, it would have been potentially beneficial to provide these to be filled in before the implementation of RA began, and then some time after once a number of staff has been trained and there was time for potentially some uptake and use of the approaches. Time constraints and resources meant that this was unfeasible for this research. In terms of response, although percentage wise there was a relatively good percentage of the staff that filled out the questionnaires, the research still would have benefitted from more staff taking part. The questionnaires were administered on paper, as this is well known to yield better results than online surveys (Nulty, 2008). There were various strategies employed by the researcher in order to try and increase the response rate: the recognisable university logo was placed on the letterhead; self-addressed envelopes were provided; a box for questionnaires was provided in a staff common area; clear and simple language and instructions were used; and, replacement questionnaires were given when response rates were initially very low (Boyd, 2002). The research still would have benefited from a higher response rate as this increases the chance of obtaining significant results from the quantitative data.

	<i>School One</i>	<i>School Two</i>	<i>School One and Two total</i>
Number of total respondents	25	33	58
Number of male respondents	8	8	16
Number of female respondents	17	25	42
Number of respondents with RA training	7	14	21
Number of respondents without RA training	18	19	37

*Table 4: Breakdown of staff questionnaire responses*

In *School One* and *Two*, of those who had answered the questionnaires 38 were teaching staff, 1 was administrative staff, 2 were support staff, 14 were learning support staff, 1 was a technician and



2 were senior management. In *School One*, with regards to the role of those who filled in the questionnaires, 13 were teaching staff, 10 were learning support, and 2 were senior management. In *School Two* with regards to their roles in the school, 25 were teaching staff, 1 was administrative staff, 2 were support staff, 4 were learning support, and one was technical staff. 14 of the respondents had restorative training, whilst 19 had no restorative training.

#### **4.6.5 Focus Groups**

There is a need to engage with and take seriously the voice of pupils in the school when implementing any kind of school change that will have an effect on them (Gregory *et al*, 2014). Pupils in a school are also heavily aware of any changes that affect the overall ‘feel’ of a school. In the past decade there has been a considerable rise in the number of publications in which focus groups are used with children and teenagers. The aim of this focus group was to explore the pupils ideas, values, views and perspectives regarding the introduction of RA and more generally regarding discipline in the school. Vaughn *et al* (1996) found that the support offered within a focus group allowed the participants greater honesty and security in their answers. Focus groups are also an effective way to replicate an environment pupils will already feel comfortable in and provide a safe peer environment to discuss their views (Mauthner, 1997). By inviting pupils in to a focus group, the researcher is essentially acknowledging them as experts who are sharing their experiences which will likely yield rich data (Levine and Zimmerman, 1996). It was important for the researcher to understand that the quality of the data obtained from the focus group would be directly linked to the quality of the facilitator. To begin with the questions were kept general and then gradually became more focused in order to allow participants to reflect on the topic (Kreuger, 1994). The pupils were provided with visual aid in order to facilitate and include all members of the group (Greenbaum, 1998). If any participant felt uneasy or unwilling to participate in group discussion they were encouraged to write down their answers if they felt comfortable doing so. The facilitator ensure that everyone could contribute if and when they wanted to and aimed to seek clarity when contributions were open to interpretation.

The focus groups were all voice recorded and took place in a meeting room within the respective schools in order to make sure participants felt at ease. There were four focus groups in each of the schools, with number of participants ranging from 8-12. Due to the age range in the focus groups it was vital that all participants understood the questions being asked and that all of them understood the voluntary nature of the research. This was explained at the beginning of the focus groups, participants also signed a consent form. The pupils were selected for the focus group as established in the sampling section of the methodology. Focus groups involved between 8-12 pupils, although

slightly larger than the recommended size of 5-8 pupils it was convenient for the school to provide us with these numbers. The groups were of mixed ages, from 11-18, and of mixed gender. The groups were made up of a mix of pupils in order to try and gain a varied demographic of pupils. This ranged from pupils who formed part of the pupil government in the school to pupils who had been continually in behavioural units and those who had taken part in some kind of restorative approach. This provided more contextual data for the research. As mentioned earlier, when carrying out any kind of educational research it is important to ask pupils what they think as they are the ones who fully experience the schooling system as it stands. The focus groups were centred on questions surrounding how pupils think about the way teachers deal with misbehaviour, whether they have heard of restorative approaches, and, their opinions on what should be done when pupils cause disruption. A set of guide questions was written for the focus groups<sup>5</sup>, however these were not prescriptive, as it was important to let the groups evolve at their natural pace. Pupils were also invited to write down anything they felt they did not want to say in front of the group, an option which many of the pupils utilised.

#### ***4.6.6 Interviews***

Semi-structured interviews were used to gather data from members of staff in each school. The interview schedule had a number of pre-determined questions to ask participants. However, these questions were left very open and aimed to allow the participants appropriate space, time and prompts to share their thoughts, feelings and observations about the implementation of RA in their school. The interview schedule was flexible and allowed reflexivity on the part of the researcher regarding topics that the participants were particularly keen to discuss and topics they tried to not go into too much detail about<sup>6</sup>. The decision to use face-to-face, semi-structured interviews was chosen as the primary purpose of the interviews was to gain insight and understanding in to how the teachers feel about the implementation of restorative approaches, and to gain a greater depth of understanding and meaning (Gilham, 2000; Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Using semi-structured interviews provides the opportunity to generate rich data, gain insight into their perceptions and values, and gain a contextual understanding of the phenomenon being studied. The interview schedule was designed with a number of predetermined key questions that were grouped thematically and used for reference by the interviewer, who also provided prompts for the participants. The participants were chosen purposively for the study, depending on what their role was in the school, if they had RA training, and staff members who the head teacher believed would

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<sup>5</sup> Please see Appendix B

<sup>6</sup> For the semi-structured interview schedule please see Appendix D

be helpful to talk to. For an interview to be successful, it is important that it is ensured that as much as possible the participants opinions are truly reflected within the interview. Jones (1985) defines this as understanding an individual in a way that ensures one understands their context of reality, and in a depth address the rich context that is the substance of their meaning.

Gomm (2004) also describes ‘demand characteristics’ whereby participants answer in a way they deem the situation/questions requires. For this reason, it is important to make it clear at the beginning of the interview that there are no expected answers and what the purpose of the interview is. To maintain validity it is important for the researcher to avoid using leading questions, and get rid of any assumptions about what is and is not worth discussing for the research. Participants were selected as discussed in the sampling section of the methodology. These participants included members of teaching staff, members of staff at senior levels and members of staff who worked in behavioural units (Hafan/Encil). All interviews were recorded and took place in the participants school in order to put the participants at ease as much as possible. The interviews lasted between 20 minutes and an hour. Ten interviews were carried out in each of the schools with different members of staff. The staff varied between staff who had different levels of training, no training, different career lengths, and different levels of seniority.

#### ***4.6.7 Observations***

Observations were carried out in several classroom lessons, with several different teachers. It was important though that the researcher kept an open mind whilst carrying out these observations, whilst the general area of interest was specified it was important the researcher did not make judgements what parts of classroom management were relevant and not relevant to observe. In order to choose the best observation strategy it was important to consider the specific focus of the research, what questions the observations were intended to address, and any supplementary data that may be necessary. Before undertaking the observations it was decided what were the important factors that the research wanted to observe and record. Included in this were: any use of restorative language; active listening; how the teacher maintained discipline in the class; how the pupils reacted to this; and, how any disruptive incidents were handled. The significant events that the researcher took detailed notes about were ‘discipline’ events or ‘classroom management’ events. This is any sequence of events where a teacher aims to keep control of a situation or pupil, often started by a disruptive act by a student or at particularly disruptive moments in the classroom like the start of class. Once the parameters of the observations had been set it was important to decide on an appropriate number of observations to carry out. The researcher observed various different teachers with different teaching and discipline styles (as identified by members of senior staff), as the aim of

the observations was to explore the range of views, practices and beliefs associated with pupils discipline the idea of generalisability was not of concern. The researcher then undertook a period of intensive observation directed at inferring the ways in which different teachers try to maintain discipline in a classroom and whether they use RA to do this (Hargreaves *et al*, 1975). Simpson and Tuson (1995) state that observations are a key technique when the researcher is trying to gain further understanding and insights into how different people perceive and interpret events, how they behave in specific context, and how they interact with others.

Observations were carried out in 15 lessons in each of the schools. Cameron and Thorsborne's (2001) definition of RA was utilised as an ideal of how a fully "restorative school" would look at and deal with misbehaviour and disruption. This was referred back to throughout the observations to ensure that restorative behaviour from staff or pupils was picked up on.

*"Restorative justice in the school setting views misconduct not as school-rule-breaking and therefore a violation of the institution, but as a violation against people and relationships in the school and wider school community. Restorative justice means that the harm done to people and relationships needs to be explored and that harm needs to be repaired."*  
(Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001, p.180)

Due to the uncertain definition RA in education there are three distinctive ways of considering restorative approaches. These are as a set of practice, a set of skills, a set of values or a distinctive ethos (Hopkins, 2002). The observations aimed to record signs of any of these separate ways of considering restorative approaches, but also to characterise the consistent behaviour management themes throughout the school. The key restorative values are intended to create an ethos of respect, accountability, inclusion, responsibility, commitment to relationships, impartiality, being non-judgmental and emotional intelligence. The key restorative skills used as a backdrop to these values are active listening, problem-solving, facilitating dialogue, conflict-management skills, compassion and empowering others to take responsibility for their actions (Skinns *et al*, 2009).

#### **4.6.8 Open-ended questionnaires**

It was important to collect data from the two restorative officers who implemented RA within the schools. The RA officers perspective and information about the implementation was necessary to provide both greater context, but also as they were provided a unique insight into each school. The questionnaire was designed mainly to obtain specific data, for example, the number of cases in each

school. However, it also provided the RA officers with a chance to review how they perceived the implementation in each school. Gaining access to these officers was difficult; they were working in a number of different settings and did not have time to be interviewed. An open-ended questionnaire was decided on to collect as much data from the officers on their perceptions of the implementations in each school. An open-ended questionnaire meant that the officers did not have to meet the researcher to complete it, but also allowed for the officer to go into sufficient detail. Open-ended questionnaires are useful methods for gaining insight and exploring organisational contexts (Jackson and Trochim, 2002) The restorative officers provide important insights into how each school dealt with the implementation, and to what extent each school understood and utilised RA.

There were two restorative officers from the youth justice service who worked at training, implementing and using RA in both the schools. The officers were stationed at the same time in both schools with the first officer (RAO1) beginning the implementation and then leaving, and the second restorative officer (RAO2) taking over the duties. Both restorative officers filled out an open-ended questionnaire that explored their ideas around restorative approaches, implementation and the work they had done in the school.<sup>7</sup>

#### **4.7 Data Analysis**

One of the fundamental issues in mixed methods research is the extent to which the researchers genuinely integrate the findings. In order for the use of mixed methods to be justified the research needs to be analysed, interpreted, and written up in a way that is “*mutually illuminating*” (Bryman, 2007, p.8). An important tenet of carrying out good mixed methods research is the ability of the researcher to carry out the analysis and interpretation of mixed methods data with reflexivity and care (Greene *et al.*, 2001). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) argue that the traditional methods of data analysis in mixed methods research “*consists of analyzing the quantitative data using quantitative methods and the qualitative data using qualitative methods*” (p. 128). A significant difficulty throughout the mixed methods research field is that of merging analysis of quantitative and qualitative data to provide a properly integrated analysis (Bryman, 2007). In order to analyse the data successfully it needs to be summarised to get results and then the significance of these results needs to be determined (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The aim of the inferential stage of the mixed method research project is to formulate conclusions, generalisation and interpretations from both research strands and extends them beyond the results to answer the research question at

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<sup>7</sup> See Appendix E

hand. Caracelli and Greene (1993) found that mixed methods researchers rarely report how they conducted their data analysis, and often mixed methods research kept the analysis and interpretation of the data separate. They highlight the importance of a conceptual framework for mixed-method research that includes data analysis. In order to overcome this, it is important to keep the research questions and purpose in mind at all times, and use that as a platform for conducting an integrative analysis (Bryman, 2007).

Onweugbuzie and Leech (2006) referred to three different types of quantitative research questions: descriptive, correlational, or comparative. The quantitative component of the design for this research design is descriptive as the levels of Pupil Control Ideology and RJ Ideology in the school are being investigated to give a contextual background for the qualitative components. This means that descriptive statistics will be used to describe the data. Comparative statistics can also be used for the quantitative component of the research to compare the context of the two schools and see whether this affects how they react to the implementation of restorative approaches. Conastas (1992) argues that there are some important factors the research needs to address whilst undergoing the qualitative reduction of data. These are where the responsibility of the creation of the categories existed, what the grounds were to justify the existence of such categories, why were the categories named as they were, and, at what point during the research process were the categories created. Thematic analysis as be used to analyse the data obtained from observations, interviews and focus groups. Thematic analysis is particularly apt for this research design as it does not adhere to a set epistemological or ontological position and can be used differently depending on the theoretical framework it is applied under (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Through its theoretical freedom, thematic analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool, which can (if used correctly) provide a rich, detailed and complex account of data. It essentially allows researchers a way of identifying, analysing and reporting themes found in their data. Taylor and Ussher (2001) state the importance of researchers being accountable for the active role they take in creating themes and patterns in the data. As with the pragmatic underpinning, the research questions guide the data collection and analysis is used in ways that are most likely to provide insight into the questions.

Initially *how* the data was analysed will be discussed, to provide the transparency of data analysis that is synonymous with a good research project. A major criticism of mixed methods research is that mixed methods researchers rarely report how they conducted their data analysis, and often mixed methods research keeps the analysis and interpretation of the data separate (Caracelli and Greene, 1993). Often this can lead to it being unclear why a mixed methods approach was necessary in the first place, as it is not clear whether the mixing of methods has enriched the project.

Therefore, the importance of having a conceptual framework for mixed-methods research that includes data analysis and interpretation is imperative. For a research project like this it is important to keep the research questions and purpose in mind at all times, and use those as a platform for conducting an integrative analysis that uses both the types of data (Bryman, 2007). As a recurring theme throughout this research, the research questions are a continual force that drives the data collection, analysis and interpretation. The research questions in a pragmatic mixed methods research design dictate the data analysis technique administered, in order for the data to answer the questions effectively.

## **4.8 Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis Techniques**

### **4.8.1 Thematic Analysis**

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the staff interviews, pupils focus groups, and classroom observations. Boyatzis (1998) defines it as a process of “*encoding qualitative information*” (p. vii), where codes, words or phrases are developed by the researcher that adequately describe sections of data, whilst Braun and Clarke (2006) define it as “*a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns within data*” (p.79). Thematic analysis was identified as an effective method of enabling the research to identify themes and patterns across the dataset, this proves ideal for this dual-site mixed methods research project. Thematic analyses of a range of data can be combined to follow the development of a representation throughout different groups experiencing the same phenomenon provide an overall view of implementation (Joffe, 2012). This was particularly helpful for this research as the multiple viewpoints of both the pupils and the staff were important in creating a holistic answer to the research questions. The multiple thematic analyses are combined with the other analyses in order to provide a broader and combined set of data with which to answer the research subquestions.

Thematic analysis is particularly appropriate for this research design as it does not adhere to a set of epistemological or ontological position and can be used differently depending on what framework it is applied under and for a wide range of data analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke (2006) argue the importance of recognising that thematic analysis differs from other similar methods that aim to describe patterns and themes in qualitative data. Thematic analysis can be a realist method that reports the reality of the phenomenon for participants, and under the pragmatic theoretical framework, that is how this research chose to use it. The thematic analyses carried out on the qualitative data work to reflect the reality of the participants, in order to provide meaningful and useful suggestions and reflections. Under this approach, motivations, experience and meaning can

be theorised in a straightforward way, assuming that language allows individuals to articulate meaning.

Thematic analysis was ideally suited to identify and analyse patterns of meaning across a dataset, and was useful in conveying what themes are important in the description of a phenomenon by different individuals involved (Braun and Clarke, 2006). As the intent of the research is to be useful to further implementation of RA, gaining an understanding of how the different groups of participants conceptualise the use of RA is particularly useful in overcoming implementation issues that have been apparent throughout other evaluations. Thematic analysis allows the main issues and themes of the phenomenon to emerge from those who have first-hand experience at the implementation. This will enrich the current literature on the implementation of RA and allows the different experiences and realities of RA be seen for different groups.

There is a surprising dearth of literature relating to carrying out thematic analysis and the steps that should be undertaken to produce a good thematic analysis, however Boyatzis (1998), Braun and Clarke (2006), and Joffe and Yardley (2004) outline the basic steps of thematic analysis. In order to analyse the data as rigorously as possible the six steps identified by Braun and Clarke (2006) were used. Braun and Clarke (2006) lay out four specific considerations that need to be explicitly discussed and considered when carrying out thematic analysis. These are what counts as a theme for the purpose of the research; whether a rich description of the dataset is desired, or a detailed description of one particular aspect; whether the thematic analysis will be carried out inductively or deductively; and, whether the analysis will be carried out at either a semantic or latent level.

For the purpose of this research a theme is the capturing of something important about the data in relation to overall research question. One of the main issues of contention when it comes to 'themes' is what size does a pattern in the data need to be in order for it to be classified as a theme. Thematic analysis offers much flexibility to the researcher in order to allow researcher judgement in what a particularly important theme is to answer the research question. Braun and Clarke (2006) point out that the 'keyness' of a theme is not always dependent on quantifiable measures; rather, what matters is whether it captures something that is of overall importance in answering the research question. These may not be the most prevalent themes across the datasets, but they captured important elements needed to answer the research questions, which is ultimately what should drive a pragmatic research design. However, it must also be noted that the theme must be represented across the data set, and not a single code that could be of importance to the question. The codes that were made for this particular were driven by the research question very generally.



Themes were picked in relation to answering three subquestions, so the measure of 'prevalence' for the dataset related to how well the data answers the questions asked. However, the research ensured that the themes that emerged represented the whole dataset by making sure they occurred a number of times throughout the information. In order to create themes, the data is coded carefully and thoroughly.

Braun and Clarke (2006) state that it is important to know what kind of claims one wants to make in relation to the dataset. Either a rich thematic description of the entire dataset, or a more nuanced description of a particular theme or group of themes in the dataset. As the qualitative aspects of this research were all driven by semi-structured schedules, the research decided to make a rich thematic description of the entire dataset. The prevalence of the schedule meant that all data collected was somehow related to the school culture, behaviour management, and restorative approaches. As a result of this a rich description of all sets of qualitative was decided on in order to provide a holistic view of implementation from a number of different data sources. This ensured that different data sets could also be displayed together, where some of the themes overlapped.

Using thematic analysis, themes can be identified either by an inductive approach or by a deductive or theory driven approach. For this research, an inductive approach to data analysis was adopted. This is due to the pragmatic nature of the research, and the need for practical solutions to implementation problems to be taken from the literature. Inductive reasoning allows the researcher to code the data without trying to fit it into a theoretical preconception or pre-existing coding frame (Boyatzis, 1998). The inductive approach compliments the above consideration of providing a rich thematic description of the whole data-set (Braun and Clarke, 2006). As the analysis progressed a number of codes emerged that did not address the exact research questions, however were helpful in understanding the culture and 'feel' of each school. There were also a number of codes directly relating to the research questions and it was these that were initially used to start developing themes, bringing in a wider range of codes later. This method facilitates within or cross-case comparisons amongst the data. Whilst the literature review for the current research was extensive and highlighted a number of areas where implementation may be problematic, it was important for the current research to potentially develop new insight into the implementation of RA, and this meant using an inductive approach here.

The fourth decision Braun and Clarke (2006) highlight is whether to carry out analysis at either a semantic or latent level. The current research will undertake a semantic analysis of the data for this question and dataset. The question it is intended to answer is an account of the pupils experience

and perceptions of behavioural management, the staff in the schools experience of the implementation, and the general experience in the classrooms observed. A more latent approach to the data would move the research in to a more constructionist endeavour in trying to find out the underlying assumptions in what the participants are saying. As driven by the mixed methods research design and a pragmatic framework it is important for the research to be useful, and this involves presenting a more realist and descriptive account of the different participants experiences and combining these in order to answer the research question. By taking what the analysis finds at a semantic level, the research can inform further implementations with practical advice and suggestions that have been taken from the data analysis.

#### *4.10.2 Doing the thematic analysis*

Braun and Clarke (2006) provide six steps in carrying out a good thematic analysis. In the interest of transparency this section will address how each of these were applied to the current research.

- Familiarising yourself with the data

The initial step in thematically analysing the data is the close examination of the dataset as a precursor to developing a coding frame (Joffe, 2012). As all the data collection and transcription were carried out by the researcher, the data familiarisation that is key to thematic analysis was already apparent. For this research, part of this process meant carefully transcribing the recorded data. In order for the analysis to provide as much insight as possible it is important that this phase of the analysis is carried out correctly and involves actively reading through the data before coding begins (Joffe and Yardley, 2004). Once all data had been transcribed and the researcher felt familiar with the content, initial coding began. For this data, the researcher spent a considerable amount of time reading through the different sets of qualitative data and beginning to get a ‘feel’ for it, and consider the various ideas and aspects that were present.

- Generating initial codes

The initial codes developed from the *School One* and *School Two* interviews, focus groups and observations were complex and varied and required a great deal of refinement and analysis in order to create themes that were representative of the data as a whole (Joffe, 2012). As with inductive analysis, some themes did not relate to the research and some did. However, due to the semi-structured nature of the qualitative research the majority of the data was very relevant to the questions. This meant there were a large amount of initial codes. Patterns were identified through a vigorous process of data familiarisation, data coding, and theme development and revision (Boyatzis, 1998). Coding the data meant reading it closely, and making a small note when aspects

of interest arose. This could be relating to behaviour management, the school culture, restorative or approaches. However, the researcher made an effort to code extensive amounts of the data in order to not only codes aspects that seemed important, and to provide a more rich description of the data as a whole. The list of the wide range of initial codes can be found in the appendix.<sup>8</sup>

- Searching for themes

When attempting to create themes out of the codes, it was important to recognise that themes explain larger sections of the data by combining codes that consider similar aspects within the dataset (Braun and Clark, 2006). Creating the themes involves a great deal of trial and error as the themes need to incorporate all the recurring codes and accurately reflect what was said by the participants. In order to re-focus the analysis on the research question, it was now possible to begin to identify broader themes across the codes. It was essential to analyse the codes and consider how different codes may combine to form overarching themes. In order to create themes that were as representative as possible, mind-maps were used to visualise where different codes interlinked and where they fit in with the dataset. For example, in *School Two* interviews a number of codes were related to the theoretical complexity of RA, and not understanding RA fully. These codes were of sufficient enough frequency to create a larger theme, “*understanding of restorative*”, where it was discussed that in *School Two* there was some confusion surrounding RA and what utilising RA actually meant.

- Reviewing themes

The fourth step in thematic analysis involved refining and reviewing themes. For the current research it meant that once these themes were created, the coded data extracts were collated under each theme in a mind-map in order to give the researcher a better idea of the main themes and sub-themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006)<sup>9</sup>. The entire dataset was also reviewed at this point, in order to ensure the validity of the themes. This meant ensuring that each theme adequately reflects the codes and data and meant refining some themes and ensuring that they each had a core narrative that they told. For example, one of the initial themes decided on was “*behaviour management*”, however this was eventually altered as it covered too wide a remit. It was decided that different codes that came under this theme would actually make more sense in other themes.

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<sup>8</sup> See appendix G

<sup>9</sup> See appendices G and H

- Defining and naming themes

The themes then started to form broader pictures of behaviour management across both schools, identify perceptions of implementation amongst staff, and, investigate how pupils viewed behaviour management. At this point it was necessary to further define and refine the themes, and capture the ‘essence’ of what each theme is about as well as how the themes overall answer the question (Boyatzis, 1998). At this point the themes created were reviewed again to ensure that the researcher had created a narrative that represented the data set as a whole.

Alongside the other data analysis strands, the thematic analysis was designed to create a complex and holistic view of the implementation of RA and create a complex layered understanding of the various factors that affect implementation of RA in schools. The thematic analysis of the interviews was carried out with the intention that they would build on the themes identified from the pupil focus groups and create a complimentary, context rich account. The focus group data analysis was carried out first in order to create a descriptive account from the pupils perspectives, this was then built on by adding the interview analysis. The quantitative data and qualitative description of the restorative officer questionnaires add to this to provide *complementarity* and *triangulation*. Once the data was combined it allowed a fuller representation of the implementation through different groups experiencing the same phenomenon (Joffe, 2012). The final themes were then organised under the research questions that it was thought they helped address. In order to provide a visual representation of the data and show the complexity of refining a large amount of qualitative data to themes, a figure is provided at the end of the qualitative data analysis. This will show the wide range of factors that can enable or constrain the implementation of restorative approaches.

#### 4.8.3 Quantitative Analysis

The Restorative Justice Ideology (RJI) instrument and the Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) instrument are two separate scales that both place individuals on a continuum. For the RJI individuals are placed somewhere between custodial and humanistic. For the RJI they are placed between restorative and not restorative. On the RJI scale, the scores range from 0 to 100 and the higher the score the higher the restorative ideology. The scale is a 22 item likert-type scale based on a 3 factor model: restorative; cooperation; and, healing (Roland *et al*, 2012). With Cronbach’s alpha coefficients ranging from .70 to .89 for the three factors, the internal consistency is reasonably high (Roland *et al*, 2012).

A teachers PCI may fall anywhere on the scale from custodial to humanistic: with the custodial teacher being authoritarian and controlling, and the humanistic teacher being authoritative and

trying to form positive interpersonal relationships with pupils (Hoy, 2001). The scores on the PCI range from 0 (completely humanistic) to 100 (completely custodial) - with most scorers falling between 45 and 65 (Cadavid and Lunenberg, 1991; Woolfolk and Hoy, 1990). The PCI has been widely used among educational research and therefore has been widely tested for reliability and validity, with a Cronbach alpha level of the scale calculated as .72 (Bas, 2011). Data as to what individual teachers scored on each scale was collected across both schools to provide a quantitative contextual background and exploration of relationships between certain characteristics, alongside the themes that emerged from the qualitative data. There was a particular interest in whether either of the schools scored significantly higher or lower on either scale, in order to signify that the schools had potentially different cultures.

SPSS was used to analyse the quantitative data. The total sample across both schools was utilised to test for various relationships between the two scales and other basic information that was collected from participants. It was important for the research to test data across both schools, and also separately for *School One* and *School Two*. Testing the data like this allowed for comparisons across the school, but also to test for wider relationships across the case-study sites for generalisation. Alongside the two scales, additional information about participants was collected, including: age; gender; length of career; job role; and, what level (if any) restorative training they had received<sup>10</sup>. The additional information was to allow for specific testing of relationships between the quantitative data, that would enable *triangulation* or *complementarity* with the qualitative analysis.

Initially, the mean PCI and RJI scores were calculated for *School One*, *School Two*, and across both schools. The mean scores are useful in placing the scores in context, and comparing these schools with previous research to explore whether either school was particularly extreme in their ideology. Various relationships between data were tested across *School One*, *School Two*, and across each school. To check for statistically significant relationships between PCI or RJI and across age groups and different career lengths a one-way analysis of variance was employed, using the post hoc test (Tukey) to identify any specific mean differences. To test for statistically significant differences in RJI and PCI cross genders, staff role, and whether individuals had RA training, independent sample T-tests were employed. Finally, two further tests were carried out on the data. To check for statistically significant differences in RJI and PCI scores between schools to determine where the school differed significantly on RJI and PCI, and independent T-test was employed. The

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<sup>10</sup> See Appendix F

relationship between PCI and RJI was also of interest to the research. In order to determine whether there is a relationship between RJI and PCI scores, Pearson's correlation coefficient was employed across both schools, and with *School One* and *School Two* separately. The quantitative results will be placed under the appropriate subquestion headings, even when results were not significant it is important to report these as the lack of a statistically significant relationship can mean a number of things. If there had been a large number of responses to the questionnaires it would potentially illuminate more significant relationships. Also, the way that teachers act or perceive they act within the school may be different to their ideological beliefs for a number of reasons.

#### *4.8.4 Descriptive Qualitative Analysis*

As discussed in the methodology, there were two restorative officers situated in the schools over the course of the research. The initial restorative officer worked in each school over the course of the first six months of implementation, and then the second restorative officer took over and continued the implementation and use of RA in each school. Both restorative officers filled out the same open-ended questionnaire (see Appendix E) that detailed various parts of the implementation process and enabled them to extensively discuss how they felt it was progressing. The other qualitative data in this research was analysed using thematic analysis. However, one of the central tenets of thematic analysis is having an adequate amount of data to analyse in order to create themes representative of a large body of data. For the restorative officers questionnaires it was decided that a descriptive analysis of what was contained in the questionnaires would be the best way to use the data and incorporate it fully into the discussion. A semantic analysis of both documents, simply using them for qualitative description was employed here. The data collected from these contains important context on the phenomenon of implementing restorative approaches. Data from these two open-ended questionnaires will be used descriptively to provide a wider view of implementation and to describe the phenomenon. For this aspect of the data, analysis will be at a basic level. Thematic analysis was not appropriate here as there were only two questionnaires, and therefore not a large enough amount of data to investigate for emerging themes. The data was analysed simply to provide a descriptive account of the implementation by both restorative officers, and their thoughts towards how *School One* and *School Two* accepted and utilised restorative approaches. This information provides important contextualisation of each case site, and used alongside the other qualitative and quantitative provides a more holistic view of the implementation across both sites. The RA officer data will be built into the findings chapter in order to provide further scope for critical analysis of the research questions.

## **4.9 Summary**

The methodology has outlined the creation of a research design that allows for the use of multiple methods in order to explore the implementation of RA in the two schools in as much detail as possible. The design chosen was a dual-site case study mixed methods design; that carried out the same research methods concurrently across the two schools. The research methods decided on were questionnaires containing PCI and RJI, semi-structured interviews with staff and Youth Justice Services workers, focus groups and observations. A wide range of methods were decided on as the best way to provide holistic answers to the subquestions. The chapter places the research in context with other research carried out in the field and on the implementation of RA in education. It will add to the literature by providing a more in-depth analysis of the phenomenon, which when situated alongside the larger empirical studies will provide a solid basis for understanding where issues lie when implementing RA in schools. Finally, the data analysis techniques used were reviewed in detail in this methodology chapter.

## Chapter Five: Findings

### 5.1 Introduction

Analysing a concurrent mixed-methods research project entails analysing both the quantitative and qualitative data separately, and then combining and cross-referencing the data. Conclusions drawn from both quantitative and qualitative data, and across the sets of data are known as inferences and these are used in the discussion to answer the research questions (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2005). The strands of analysed data from the various methods used are combined at the stage of interpretation (this findings chapter) as is appropriate in a concurrent mixed methods design (Onweugbuzie and Combs, 2011), in order to provide a holistic view of the implementation of RA in each school. The purpose of mixing this data is to provide *triangulation*; where the quantitative findings are compared to the qualitative results and *complementarity*, where the results of one type of analysis will enhance, expand and compliment results from other analyses (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). Analysing the quantitative data using quantitative methods and the qualitative data using qualitative methods is the traditional procedure for a concurrent mixed-methods research design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

The research combines the study of two specific sites to provide an exploration of the contexts in which RA might be implemented to providing a broader basis for generalisation and an enriched set of data. The pragmatic framework of the research dictates that the questions guide all decisions in the project, with an aim that the research is as practical and useful as possible (Newman and Benz, 1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). There are several principles of pragmatism that have had an influence on the research design and data analysis, these include: a preference for action over philosophising; an endorsement of theory that informs effective practice; and, the recognition that even conflicting and contradictory perspectives can be useful as they help us gain an understanding of people and the social world (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Sharp *et al*, 2012). The aim of data analysis is the process of ‘making sense’ of the data collected in order to answer the research questions (Merriam, 2009). From the beginning stages of data collection, it was important that the data analysis would be closely recorded in order to provide transparency of the data and how it has been used. Importantly this enables the research to be easily replicated and makes clear the pragmatic assumptions that underlie the data analysis by showing the practical reflection of the research questions<sup>11</sup>. Three different types of analysis are utilised in this research: thematic analysis, descriptive qualitative analysis; and, quantitative analysis testing for relationships within the data

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<sup>11</sup> For a more in-depth discussion of the data analysis please see page 129



Data from *School One* and *School Two* was collected and analysed separately: this allows for an insight of implementation in each school; cross-site comparison<sup>12</sup>, and, an overall view of implementation in both schools to check for commonalities. The various types of data collected in this piece of research were as follows: staff interviews; teaching observations; pupils focus groups; staff questionnaires (pupil control ideology and restorative justice ideology); and, open-ended questionnaires with the restorative officers in each school. This findings chapter will be structured around the research subquestions in order to show the sources of the data that are used to answer each question. The analysed data will be presented under each subheading with each theme comprising of the essence/main narrative of that theme, and also the research method(s) it developed from. Both the findings chapter and discussion will be based around these research subquestions, with a view to answer the overarching research question:

*What are the individual, cultural and structural factors that affect the implementation of restorative approaches in schools?*

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<sup>12</sup> Cross-site comparison will occur more in the discussion chapter

## 5.2 Data Interpretation

*Q1. In what ways did the existing school culture have an influence on the implementation of restorative approaches?*

In order to address *subquestion one* data from the questionnaires, focus groups, restorative officers, observations, and interviews is addressed. *School One* and *School Two* for the most part appeared to have similar school cultures, however there were a few areas where different themes emerged from the schools and these will be discussed as they will become important in the discussion chapter. The quantitative data showed that neither schools were particularly extreme in their ideologies, this is mirrored in the qualitative data. By including the mean values for PCI and RJI for *School One*, *School Two* and across both schools here, it can be seen how for the most part all members of staff in each school who participated in the questionnaire were relatively similar and consistent in their scores.

In *School One*, the mean RJI total was 60.76 (sd = 6.6). The mean RJI total for females was 60.05 (sd = 7.74), whilst the mean RJI total for males was 62.25 (sd = 2.96). The mean RJI total for those with restorative training was 58.85 (sd = 3.97), whilst it was 61.50 (sd = 7.34) for those without. The mean PCI total was 55.7600 (sd = 7.15). The mean PCI total for females was 58.64 (sd = 5.97), whilst the mean PCI total for males was 49.62 (sd = 5.52). The mean PCI total for those with restorative training was 53.85 (sd = 7.44), whilst it was 56.50 (sd = 7.11) for those without. These figures and tables show that there were no real differences between different members of staff related to their age group, length of career, or gender.

*Table five: School One: Age Category and mean RJI*

Age Category	N	Mean RJI Total
18-25	2	66 (sd = 8.48)
26-35	4	57.5 (sd = 1.29)
36-45	8	64.5 (sd = 5.42)
46-55	7	59.14 (sd = 7.42)
56+	4	56.75 (sd = 6.84)

*Table six: School One: Length of Career and mean RJI*

<b>Length of Career</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean RJI Total</b>
1-5	5	59.4 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.96)
6-10	4	59.7 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.34)
11-15	4	57 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.97)
16-20	6	64.1 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.11)
21-25	1	—
25+	5	59.6 ( <i>sd</i> = 3.97)

*Table seven: School One: Age Category and mean PCI School One*

<b>Age Category</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>PCI Mean</b>
18-25	2	59.5 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.94)
26-35	4	56 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.05)
36-45	8	55.12 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.95)
46-55	7	56.14 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.15)
55+	4	54.25 ( <i>sd</i> = 10.24)

*Table eight: School One: Length of Career and mean PCI school one*

<b>Length of Career</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>PCI Mean</b>
1-5	5	58 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.83)
6-10	4	53.5 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.26)
11-15	4	58.5 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.44)
16-20	6	58.1 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.73)
21-25	1	—
25+	5	49.2 ( <i>sd</i> = 7.39)

In *School Two*, the mean RJI total was 59.09 (*sd* = 6.21). The mean RJI total for females was 59.39 (*sd* = 4.76) whilst for males it was 58.25 (*sd* = 9.64). The mean RJI total for teaching staff was

59.12 (sd = 6.96), for support staff it was 58 (s = 1.41) and for learning support staff it was 60.33 (sd = 3.51). The mean RJI total for those who had been trained in restorative approach was 60.85 (sd = 5.99), whilst it was 57.64 (sd = 6.18) for those who had not. The mean PCI total was 56.30 (sd = 5.93). The mean PCI total for females was 56.34 (sd = 6.05) and 56.14 (sd = 5.98) for males. The mean PCI total for teaching staff was 56.34 (sd = 5.82), for support staff 52 (sd = 4.24) and for learning support 61.33 (sd = 4.04). The mean PCI total for those who been trained in RA was 56.46 (sd = 7.52), whilst the mean for those who hadn't been trained was 56.17 (sd = 4.62)

*Table nine: School Two: Age Category and mean RJI*

<b>Age Category</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean RJI Total</b>
18-25	2	58 (sd = 5.65)
26-35	7	62.57 (sd = 6.6)
36-45	8	59.75 (sd = 8.49)
46-55	9	56.42 (sd = 2.43)
55+	5	57 (sd = 6.28)

*Table ten: School Two: Length of Career and mean RJI*

<b>Length of Career</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean RJI Total</b>
1-5	8	56.87 (sd = 2.29)
6-10	7	61.5 (sd = 4.03)
11-15	5	59.6 (sd = 8.56)
16-20	5	60.66 (sd = 12.01)
21-25	3	58 (sd = 1.73)
25+	5	57.2 (sd = 6.41)

*Table eleven: School Two: Age Category and Mean PCI*

Age Category	N	Mean PCI
18-25	2	57 ( <i>sd</i> = 2.82)
26-35	7	55.1 ( <i>sd</i> = 7.28)
36-45	8	56.2 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.32)
46-55	9	56.8 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.33)
56+	5	58.6 ( <i>sd</i> = 2.5)

*Table twelve: School Two: Length of Career and Mean PCI*

Length of Career	N	Mean PCI
1-5	8	59.87 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.29)
6-10	7	53.66 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.98)
11-15	5	55.2 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.04)
16-20	5	53.66 ( <i>sd</i> = 9.01)
21-25	3	56.33 ( <i>sd</i> = 3.78)
25+	5	56.4 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.82)

Across *School One* and *School Two*, the mean RJI total was 59.83 (*sd* = 6.38). The mean RJI total for females was 59.67 (*sd* = 6.12) and for males was 60.25 (*sd* = 7.19). For those who had been trained in RA the mean RJI total was 60.19 (*sd* = 5.39) and 59.62 (*sd* = 6.98) for those who had not been trained. The mean PCI total across both schools was 56.05 (*sd* = 6.46). . The mean PCI total for females was 57.32 (*sd* = 6.05) and for males was 52.66 (*sd* = 6.47). The mean PCI total was 55.55 (*s* = 7.4) for those who had been trained and 56.34 (*sd* = 5.95) for those who had not been trained.

*Table thirteen: School One and Two: Age Category and RJI Mean*

Age Category	N	RJI Mean
18-25	4	62 ( <i>sd</i> = 7.48)
26-35	11	60.72 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.76)
36-45	16	62.12 ( <i>sd</i> = 7.31)
46-55	16	57.78 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.49)
56+	9	56.88 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.11)

*Table fourteen: School One and School Two: Staff Role and RJI mean*

<b>Staff Role</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>RJI Mean</b>
Teaching	38	59.43 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.99)
Administrative	1	—
General Support	2	58 ( <i>sd</i> = 1.41)
Learning Support	14	61.38 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.55)
Technician	1	—
Senior Management	2	59.83 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.38)

As there was only one participant in the administrative and technician sections they were excluded from further tests.

*Table fifteen: School One and Two: Age Category and mean PCI*

<b>Age Category</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>PCI Mean</b>
18-25	4	58.25 ( <i>sd</i> = 3.59)
26-35	11	55.45 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.56)
36-45	16	55.66 ( <i>sd</i> = 7.36)
46-55	16	56.5 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.63)
56+	9	56.2 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.52)

*Table sixteen: School One and Two: Staff Role and mean PCI*

<b>Staff Role</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>PCI Mean</b>
Teaching	38	55.3 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.97)
Administrative	1	—
General Support	2	52 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.24)
Learning Support	14	60.92 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.95)
Technician	1	—
Senior Management	2	56.05 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.46)

These mean scores are not dissimilar to other pieces of research using the PCI scale. Again, this reinforces the notion that neither of these schools is extreme in their ideologies and they both exhibit the characteristics of normal schools. For the PCI scale other research showed ranges from .40 to .69 (Lunenbergh and O'Reilly, 1974; Hall, Hall and Abaci, 1997; Gordon, Dembo, and Hocevar, 2007).

#### *Do schools differ on RJI and PCI?*

In order to test for any significant measurable difference between the two school cultures the data was analysed to find out whether *School One* and *School Two* differed significantly from each other. This test was carried out to investigate whether there were any significant differences between the schools on levels of restorativeness or pupil control ideology. If there was a significant result this would mean that one school was significantly more 'restorative' or 'custodial' or 'humanistic' than the other. To check for statistically significant differences in RJI and PCI scores between the schools, an independent samples T-test was employed. The tests revealed no significant differences in either RJI totals ( $t(54) = 0.968$ ,  $p = 0.337$ ) or PCI totals ( $t(53) = -.306$ ,  $p = 0.765$ ) between the schools.

As will become apparent throughout the analysis, the qualitative data used to answer subquestion one reinforces this notion from the quantitative data that neither school is particularly extreme in their ideologies. However, there were some differing themes that emerged from *School One* and *School Two* and these go onto provide some important discussion for the thesis.

#### *Pupils perceptions of behaviour management*

At the core of this theme was the majority of pupils seeing more traditional punishments being used by members of staff. However, the perceived fairness of behaviour management in each school began to paint a different picture of each school. In *School One* the pupils produced a detailed narrative of how they viewed behaviour management and what techniques they saw being used the most. The pupils saw shouting and detention being used the most by members of staff, they felt it was the teachers 'go to' way of dealing with behavioural issues in the classroom.

*"I think it's the first thing some of them [teachers] think to do when someone is being naughty, to shout at them straight away"* (S1, G3)

The pupils in *School One* were very aware of Encil and Hafan<sup>13</sup>, with nearly all of them mentioning it in the focus group. The pupils felt that Encil and Hafan were utilised a lot by the teachers. The pupils particularly like the idea of Hafan as they

*“have places to go when we [they] are hurt or worried with homework” (S1, G2).*

In general, in *School One* the pupils felt that teachers had become stricter over the preceding few months. There was a general feeling that teachers and staff had become stricter surrounding smaller issues such as pupils wearing hoodies, forgetting their gym kits and the pupils appearance. Examples given were if a pupil was found to be wearing nail varnish or make up, teachers are more likely to recognise and acknowledge it than they previously were.

*“They’ve got much stricter now, if they see someone wearing nail varnish they’ll make them take it straight off” (S1, G2).*

Overall however, one of the main codes that came under pupils perceptions of behaviour management in *School One* was that they felt it was very fair and democratic. The word democratic was used multiple times and there was an emphasis on opportunities to speak to members of staff if pupils were unhappy. The pupils felt that all members of the school community were treated fairly. Many pupils mentioned the points system that meant that pupils are rewarded for good behaviour and reprimanded if they get points taken away. There was uncertainty amongst a few pupils about the use of Hafan. While it was felt that Hafan was good for certain circumstances, such as upset pupils, it was often used by misbehaving pupils as a way to get out of being punished. The idea of pupils ‘getting away with’ certain behaviour can be seen in the RA literature. In the Bristol research, pupils felt that although RA was a positive thing they should exist alongside more traditional punishments such as exclusions and detentions (Skinns *et al*, 2009). This is because although pupils acknowledge they prefer a more restorative approach they still do not want others misbehaviour to disrupt their lessons. A few pupils felt as though RA were akin to “getting away with it” as they did not get shouted at or punished in a traditional sense (Skinns *et al*, 2009).

In *School Two* the behaviour management strategies that the pupils are most aware of where the teachers shouting, sending pupils out of lessons and using detention. One of the codes that came under pupil behaviour management in *School Two* that was not apparent in *School One* was that

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<sup>13</sup> For further discussion of Encil and Hafan please see page



some teachers would ignore misbehaviour, this ties in with pupils annoyance at other pupils disrupting their lessons.

*“Sometimes they just don’t do anything, especially if it’s someone they like who’s being naughty, that annoys me” (S2, G2)*

McCluskey (2008) used focus groups to gauge feelings and opinions on misbehaviour from pupils of four different schools. It was found that pupils in these schools were deeply dissatisfied with the way in which their schools dealt with disruption. Similar to this research it was found that classroom disruption was seen as an unwelcome feature of their classroom life (McCluskey, 2008). Under this theme the research begins to get a feel for the slight differences apparent in each school, for example the contrast between feelings of fairness in *School One* and *School Two*. Overall, pupils in *School Two* felt they were treated unfairly. There was a great deal codes linked to inconsistencies in how teachers deal with misbehaviour and the way different pupils were treated. This kind of inconsistency and unhappiness with it could be indicative of poor pupil-staff relationships. Pupils felt that they deserved more respect than they were getting from teachers and that this provided a barrier to forming meaningful relationships with teachers. Interestingly, in Kokotsaki’s (2013) evaluation of restorative approaches, pupils felt that through virtue of their position in the classroom teachers held an unspoken authority, this clashes with the idea of a collaborative, restorative approach.

#### *Teacher inconsistency and favouritism*

Emerging from the pupil focus group data was the theme of teacher inconsistency and favouritism. Whilst there are elements of this in the *“pupil perceptions of behaviour management”* theme, there were enough codes relating to inconsistency and favouritism that it was decided it would be a standalone theme. In *School One* a common theme across the focus groups was the idea that teachers all dealt with pupil misbehaviour differently, whilst some teachers are more willing to talk things through others are more likely to just put pupils in detention, Hafan or Encil. The pupils stated that different teachers had different classroom rules,

*“different teachers have different misbehaving rules, this isn’t fair because the teachers should give the same punishment” (S1, G3).*

Most pupils felt this was unfair as

*“what can get you into trouble in one class, is fine in another”*(S1, G1).

However, most pupils in *School One* recognised that this differing in classroom rules may be down to the individual teachers personalities. The recognition of different personalities shows a certain level of empathy amongst pupils within *School One*. By going beyond simply seeing the teachers as authority figures, and understanding that teachers have different personalities there is a suggestion that good pupil-teacher relations exist within the school. However, the pupils expect a certain amount of consistency across the teachers approaches, and believe that the *“clearly set out school rules”* should dictate when teachers get involved and how they deal with the misbehaviour. Throughout the literature similar concerns amongst pupils are voiced about favouritism amongst staff and pupils, and the fact that certain pupils appeared to get away with some behaviour (McCluskey, 2008; Chaplain, 1996: Munn *et al*, 2000). Johnstone and Munn (1992) found that whether behaviour is viewed as disruptive or not by a teacher is very context specific and can come down to varying factors such as the time of the year or day, the teachers mood, the subject matter, and relationships with certain pupils. Whilst discussing inconsistency across teachers, pupils also mentioned that it was important to them that the punishment of any misbehaviour is proportional to the action carried out. It was not always the case that pupils felt like punishment was proportional and they felt like some teachers *“overreacted”* to certain issues. The notion of punishment being proportional will be further explored in subquestion five.

In *School Two* pupils felt as though some teachers ‘picked on’ certain pupils while the others got away with misbehaving and that they showed ‘favouritism’ towards certain pupils. One pupil said that teachers

*“pinpoint individual pupils and some teachers do have favourites in class”* (S2,G3).

There was a feeling that some pupils more easily got away with misbehaving, as they were more liked by teachers and the behaviour was overlooked, or they just get to go to Hafan and not actually be dealt with at all by the teachers. Pupils felt that teachers compromising on how they dealt with pupils who consistently misbehaved was unfair on the rest of the pupils who did not misbehave. This is indicative of a feeling of discontent with how behaviour is managed in *School Two*, feelings such as this will overall contribute to the school culture, and this may make it more difficult in turn for teachers to build effective relationships with pupils and manage behaviour consistently and successfully.

*“It’s not fair because how you act could get you in trouble on one day or with one teachers and not with other teachers” (S2, G3).*

The codes relating to a lack of respect were apparent throughout the focus group discussions. Pupils often felt that teachers did not respect them or their views and that the school would be a better place to be if the teachers showed more respect to all pupils, not just the ones that they favour. One of the central underpinnings of a restorative school ethos is the fostering of positive relationships using trust, empathy and respect for all members of the community (Lloyd *et al*, 2006).

It is important to differentiate favouritism from inconsistency in the focus group data. Favouritism was discussed with regards to specific teachers being inconsistent about their behaviour management across different pupils. The inconsistency of teachers was discussed with regards to differences across all members of staff in dealing with misbehaviour. This suggests that the pupils noticed this particular factors at both a micro and macro level within the school. Pupils did not enjoy inconsistency between individual teachers though and felt as though teachers should deal with all misbehaviour in similar fashions. For example, some teachers allowed pupils to talk while they work and others would punish pupils for talking while they work. Pupils felt this was unfair, inconsistent and led to them being reprimanded more often. It was clear from this theme that these feelings of injustice were a central aspect of pupils thoughts about behaviour management, and this could potentially lead to discontent amongst pupils.

The points arising from the inconsistency theme are in keeping with Kokotsaki’s (2013) research on the implementation of RA in schools. Pupils felt as though teachers handled misbehaviour inconsistently and picked and chose when they wanted to use different behavioural management techniques. They felt this was because teachers “picked favourites” out of the pupils and were easier on these individuals, leading to a feeling of injustice amongst the pupils (Kokotsaki, 2013). OFSTED (2014) found in their survey that even teachers feel as though behavioural policies in their schools are not administered fairly and consistently by all teachers. These feelings amongst the pupils will contribute to the school culture. Any culture is influenced by its counterparts and as pupils are such a large part of the school, feelings of ‘unfairness’ or ‘democracy’ amongst pupils will be reflected in the overall ‘feel’ of the school.

#### *Using punishment for the short-term benefit*

At the centre of this theme, which was specific to *School Two*, was that pupils felt that teachers most often used behaviour management techniques that were easier in the short term, for example

shouting at pupils or sending them out. Again, this could tie in with “*pupils views on behaviour management*” theme but due to the prevalence of codes relating to this the researcher decided to put it as a separate theme. There was a recognition that this does not deal with the longer term problem or the root cause of the pupils behaviour. One pupil said

*“many teachers just ignore it or just shout at them - it doesn’t resolve the long term problem but it does in the short term”* (S2G4).

Ideas were conflicted as to whether this was a good thing, with some saying that other pupils’ behaviour should not interrupt their learning, and some saying that in order to address any behavioural problems with pupils teachers need to be able to talk to the pupils and get to the cause of the problems. This was one of the main contradictions throughout the focus groups, pupils did not want their lessons to be disrupted so were in favour of harsher punishments in this respect, but also felt that these punishment ultimately did nothing to stop the misbehaviour in the long run. They felt that there needed to be something in place to deal with the issues that cause the misbehaviour

*“Teachers need to be able to figure out why someone is being a pain so then maybe they can help them, but sometimes they’re just naughty for the sake of it”* (S2, G1)

Here it is possible to suggest that pupils would favour a behaviour management approaches that could provide a custom approach to dealing with misbehaviour, that aims to solve the root problem, rather than just reprimand the behaviour. However, pupils were also in favour of issues being dealt with quickly in order to cause as little disruption as possible. Currently, teachers in each school are not in a place where they consistently use restorative discussion within the classroom in order to deal with issues as they happen.

### *Necessity of punishment*

This theme emerged from interview transcripts in both school. At its core was the belief by teachers that punishment did have a place in schools, and RA could not be the only way to deal with behavioural issues. It signifies a distrust in RA to deal with all issues that arise within a school and reflects traditional ideas of what schools ‘should’ be. However, the reasoning behind this emerged differently in both schools which provides an interesting contrast of behaviour management and the use of punishment in each school. A code that was prevalent here was the feeling within *School One* that teachers were fully supported by senior staff to deal with unwanted behaviour, which in itself is important for the overall school culture. In *School One* the need for punishment was

expressed strongly in a number of the teachers' interviews. One of the codes that tied in to the punishment theme was that punishment was still necessary in schools due to RA not being appropriate for all pupils. There was a belief amongst staff that not all pupils have the capacity to be empathetic in the way required in order to use RA properly. The reasoning here is interesting as it suggests an understanding of restorative processes and the skills needed to partake in them. It was felt that punishment was still required to deal with situations that needed resolving instantly or quickly. Often in situations where it was felt as though a pupil needed to be removed quickly so that things did not escalate or for their own safety. This would suggest that whilst teachers are not ready to fully implement RA and give up more traditional punishments, there is an understanding of what it means to use RA. One of the teachers said

*"I think we can justify the isolation in terms of safety and that immediate... 'we need to put you some.where where you're out of harms way'... that kind of reaction is needed, instant, fast, that's done" (S1, I1).*

And another:

*"Restorative can be helpful, particularly in situations where it can be used to deal with disputes, but really it's best to be able to quickly deal with a situation if I need to" (S1, I6).*

This is a common problem in the implementation of RA in schools, where more traditional disciplinary procedures and punishments seem to dominate the main ideas entrenched in the schools surrounding behaviour management (Sherman and Strang, 2007). The whole-school implementation of RA requires a fundamental shift in thinking about school justice and discipline (Shaw, 2007), that does not appear to have manifested itself in either of the schools yet. However, further analysis shows that *School One* may have already possessed a culture that was closer to a restorative approach. The belief that punishment is a necessary part of teachers' jobs is not an unusual finding in RA research. The fact that senior staff in both schools were still voicing the need for punishment in the school implies that to a certain extent RA may be seen as 'just another tool in the box' for the schools (Lloyd *et al*, 2007).

A code linked in with punishment in teachers in *School One* was the supportive nature of senior staff with regards to punishment, and also more generally. The staff felt adequately supported by the schools with regards to using punishment that they see as appropriate. This feeling of support from the school to staff members is an important indicator of a healthy school culture where the

staff feel supported to act in ways they see as necessary (Morrison *et al*, 2006). It cannot be underestimated the importance of staff members feeling as though senior staff members are ‘on their side’. Support is important in terms of lowering teacher stress, thereby making it less likely that school staff will burn out. Whilst lack of support was not cited in *School Two*, there was no explicit discussion of this code as there was throughout *School One*.

The need for punishment as a way to keep order in the school was voiced widely by staff in *School Two*. One member of staff said

*“it’s quicker to say don’t do that, sit down, shut up” (S2, I1).*

The ease of punishment was a particular recurring theme code throughout *School Two* where a more restorative mindset may not have permeated the culture as much. The issue of time was one of the issues in each school. The fact that punishment was seen as a swift and fair way to deal with any problem was appealing. One member of staff in *School Two*, who had had the three day restorative training, mentioned that even though she is trained it is often easier to revert back to more traditional punishment language as it gets more of a reaction and it is more of a habit than restorative approaches.

*“I know it’s a good idea [restorative approaches] but when it comes down to it I find myself acting like I used to anyway” (S2, I3)*

As a contrast to this in *School One* however, the recognition that although RA may take a while to deal with problems was coupled with the understanding that RA may be one of the only ways to adequately deal with the issues in a way that all parties feel happy and safe with the outcomes.

Throughout interviews in *School Two*, it was felt that traditional punishment was still necessary as often it acts as more of a deterrent to bad behaviour. One member of staff said

*“it shows them they need to get on with it and step up to the mark rather than just saying what they think people want to hear” (S2, I3).*

Another member of staff in *School Two* said that

*“you do have children who sort of get away with it because of a more restorative approach”*  
(S2, I1).

In *School Two* we can see the predominant discourse surrounding behaviour management is still a punitive one and that RA can be viewed as a ‘soft approach’. One member of staff said that pupils need to see that something was happening to other pupils who misbehave

*“not just being taken out for a day and having a nice chat and some group work and oh they’ve missed a lesson”* (S2, I5).

This view of RA as ‘soft’ is seen as a significant barrier throughout the implementation literature and signals an incomplete understanding of what RA actually are and what it means to be restorative (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005, Blood, 2004, Lloyd *et al*, 2007). This is further discussed in the “*understanding of restorative*” theme under subquestion two.

Whilst it remains apparent that punishment is still entrenched in both schools, it becomes apparent throughout the analysis that *School One* does seem to be slowly moving towards using more restorative language and approaches on a day-to-day basis, or that they were already using them to begin with. In *School Two*, there appears to be less awareness of restorative language and what being restorative actually means. One member of staff said

*“I think sometimes you might put a restorative cap on a conversation but if they clearly don’t believe what they’re saying therefore we’re gonna have to go traditional here and take it back a couple of decades and get them writing lines”* (S2, I3).

Another member of staff in *School Two* said that

*“some pupils will just take advantage [of restorative approaches] and nothing improves and sometimes you’ve got to think of how the majority are benefiting, not that one person who thinks it’s funny to mess about”* (S2, I6)

As a whole it would seem that the challenges and ideas conveyed in the data are similar to those found in other RA in schools research. Hopkins (2002) found that the school they researched remained mostly “*untouched by the process and philosophy behind restorative approaches*” and this would appear to be the case in the schools researched here. This does not take away from the

successful conferences and work that the restorative officer has done in the schools, but rather shows that the issues of changing individual, cultural and structural norms in schools is not an easy task to undertake. The YJB state that “*unless there is a commitment to adopting a whole-school approach, schools might do better to place their efforts elsewhere; halfway measures are likely to be ineffective*” (YJB, 2004, p.70). This is not to detract from the enthusiasm and effort that some, particularly more senior members of staff have put into using restorative approaches. However, research has found that unless the majority of the school community are on board and completely aware of the implementation of RA a whole-school approach will not be a success. In *School Two*, the “behavioural boom” was mentioned alongside other behavioural management tools that gave the impression that RA was just another tool to use, and not a philosophy to follow or an approach that will become part of the school culture.

### *Boundaries and expectations*

At the core of this theme was the recognition that throughout the *School One* observations, the consistent and strict use of setting boundaries and expectations was coded. For each teacher, pupils knew exactly what was expected of them. For example, in some lessons pupils knew they were to line up outside first, in others pupils knew that they were to stand behind their desks until the teachers told them to sit down, and pupils knew that they were to stand behind their desks until they were dismissed. A recurring code of expectations was observable throughout the transcripts, teachers would very clearly state what was expected of the pupils and how the lesson would go at the beginning of the lesson, and then reiterate this throughout the lesson. Often before each new task was set the teacher would make sure everyone knew exactly what was going to happen. There was an emphasis here too on active listening, teachers constantly checking that everyone was listening and engaged so they were able to take on board what was expected of them and carry out the tasks.

The constant creation and reiteration of what was expected of the pupils also led to the making of strict boundaries in the classroom. The teachers expectations created boundaries on how the pupils should behave and what they should be doing at any given point in a lesson, for example if the pupils were doing silent work, they shouldn't be talking. When the class did become distracted and slightly disruptive most teachers adopted verbal warnings in the form of “I'm going to count down from 10 and if there's not quiet then we'll have to stay at lunch/after school”. Although this is not in line with a restorative approach to behaviour management, the clear expectations of teachers allow for engagement and responsibility for pupils learning that are in keeping with restorative tenets. The use of verbal warnings such as this were used frequently throughout the *School One* observations.



In terms of behaviour management, this would signify that pupils were very clear of what was expected from them at any given time.

The idea that pupils preferred consistency in teachers, even if this meant that the teacher was very strict, was mirrored strongly throughout the focus group data (this is further discussed in the teacher inconsistency and favouritism section of this subquestion). The ideas surrounding consistency were also mirrored in the interviews in *School One* where a number of sections were coded 'structure'. In *School One*, one member of staff said

*"kids do respond well to structure, and I don't mean draconian order, rather that they understand what's expected of them and how they need to participate then you get rid of a lot of order problems"* (S1, I2)

This theme contributes to an overall understanding of the important aspects of behaviour management within *School One*.

### *Relationship building*

The essence of the relationship building theme was the multiple ways in which the teachers in *School One* engaged in positive, proactive and relationship building with the pupils. Codes for this came from both observations and interviews with staff members. The narrative that this theme told was of a school that puts a marked emphasis on creating healthy relationships between staff and pupils, and pupils and pupils. The knowledge that this was beneficial for the school community was apparent here. This was done by promoting respectful and responsible engagement with one another. One of the fundamental underpinnings of RA is the fostering of positive relationships throughout the school community through mutual engagement (Lloyd *et al*, 2006). This was seen by positive and respectful interactions between pupils and pupils and staff members. Interactions were polite, friendly, respectful, showed empathetic tendencies and provided support when needed. For example, when pupils were struggling with a particular piece of work teachers would offer one-on-one support and encouragement where they showed real understanding of why the pupil was struggling and worked collaboratively with the pupil to deal with the issues.

In a restorative community, attention should be focused on the relationships between all members of the school community and in teaching the value of relationships in achieving quality outcomes for teachers and pupils (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001). RA allows the schools to focus on better outcomes for pupils by focusing on relationships between all members of the school community

and appreciating the value of those relationships (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001). As well as attitudinal changes in the school, RA are also thought to improve interpersonal relationships within the school (Morrison *et al*, 2006; Blood and Thorsborne, 2005; Morrison, 2005; Hopkins, 2002; Johnstone, 2002; Wachtel, 1999). Whilst RA may not be fully used in *School One* it is important to note that the underpinning framework of healthy relationships and the motivation from teachers to create this could be very important when implementing RA.

Morrison (2005, 2006) found that in schools where RA have been successfully implemented levels of respect, empathy and mutual support have grown within the pupil-pupil interactions and the pupil-teacher interactions. Moore (2005) found that effective programmes assisted the pupils in forming better, mutually respectful relationships with their teachers. Kokotsaki (2013) found that in schools where RA was successfully implemented there was a greater understanding from pupils' and teachers' on each others perspectives and how ones actions may affect another. The positive interactions and relationships observed throughout *School One* were a positive sign of pupils taking more accountability for their own actions. In schools where RA have been successfully implemented an increased number of respectful interactions is a commonplace observation (Kokotsaki, 2013). The effort that seemed to be put in to nurturing and fostering respect and engagement through relationships and interaction in the school generally led to a relatively calm atmosphere in the school, this is in keeping with a restorative school ethos (Hopkins, 2002).

In *School One*, behaviour management was characterised mainly by the importance of relationships in maintaining order in the classroom, corroborating with the positive relationships discovered from the focus groups. However, it is interesting to mention here that there was also the perceived need for punishment that was discussed in subquestion one. This would suggest that the move to RA is not straightforward, and teachers conceptions about the necessity of punishment within a school need to be explored in-depth. Although not explicitly discussed as a restorative approach, members of staff recognised that by building mutual trust, respect and relationships with the pupils and the classes then disruption was often kept to a minimum. One member of staff said

*“relationship building is essential... I know all about them... and remembering things they say is of value and it makes them feel worthwhile”* (S1, I4).

Again, this idea of relationships being of the utmost importance in a school community is one of the central restorative tenets (Hopkins, 2003). The importance of relationships to a school community is

in keeping with Vaandering and Morrison's (2011) writing on a relational ecology, where everything is centred around the relationships that occur within the school.

### *Active listening*

A theme evident across both schools was the active listening theme. At the heart of this theme were various observations of what would be termed as active listening by staff, or the promotion of active listening to the pupils. Various methods were used in order to promote active listening, such as having a listening task that involved moving around the classroom, using technology, and asking pupils to repeat what another pupil just said or make a comment on it. Active listening is one of the core restorative skills and was apparent throughout the lessons observed in both *School One* and *School Two*. Although active listening is an essential aspect of engagement (which will be discussed later), it was classed as a separate theme of its own due to it being a central restorative skill and occurring numerous times throughout the data analysis. Teachers emphasised the importance of not only listening to them, but the importance of listening to the pupils and the pupils listening to each other. Teachers often explained to the classroom that listening and responding to each other's comments and thoughts was a respectful and responsible way to treat each other. When pupils had to present their ideas, teachers made it clear that there would be no tolerance for disrespect of each other's ideas and even when pupils got things wrong teachers were encouraging, supportive and mindful of not humiliating the pupil. The emphasis on active listening was seen when teachers said things like

*"remember when we listen to each other, we show we care about their opinion"* (S1, O2),

*"are we all ready to listen?"* (S1, O3),

*"Brian is talking now, so we all listen because it's polite"* (S2, O4),

and

*"we're being rude when we don't listen, we're sending out a very negative message, when we listen to people we show that we value and respect them, not listening is rude"* (S2, O11).

Interestingly, teachers who had not been trained in RA used active listening and emphasised the need for all members of the classroom to listen to each other in a respectful manner. This suggests that active listening is not just a restorative skill, rather a skill needed for effective behavioural management in any classroom. As Hopkins (2002) observed there can be many positive outcomes from individual conferences and small-pockets of restorative approaches, often the school community as a whole remains “*untouched by the process and the philosophy behind*”(p. 68) the restorative approach. This is consistent with Lloyd *et al* (2007) findings that whilst some staff were using restorative skills in the classroom, this was not consistent across the schools. Whilst the teachers expected active, non-judgmental listening between the pupils, often when it came down to the pupils asking questions about why they were doing particular work it came down to the teacher saying “because I said so”.

In *School One* teachers placed a great significance on listening and replying to pupils in a sensitive and empathetic manner. This was witnessed throughout various exchanges between teachers and pupils throughout the courses of the observations, often when the pupils were asking why they had to do a particular task or piece of work. Replies observed were often along the lines of

*“if you do this activity, it will help you learn what gravity is and how it works, you’ll be able to see it”* (S1, O3)

and

*“well I’m not just making you do it for the sake of it, it’s really going to help with your writing”* (S1, O6).

Throughout the literature the idea of a “listening school” is seen as being very restorative (Hopkins, 2002). Whilst teachers encouraged pupils to listen to each other respectfully and listen to the teachers, they did not always return the same level of empathetic listening that they expected of the pupils. To be truly restorative the teachers need to work collaboratively with pupils and explain to them why they were doing the work. Listening in an empathetic manner and giving a genuine reply to the pupils concerns would be a more restorative way of handling the situation (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001). The importance of active listening, negotiation and facilitation are all skills promoted by RA (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). These are also skill that will promote learning more generally.

### *Low-level disruption*

A theme was present in *School Two* was that of the low-level disruption that teachers have to deal with on a daily basis. The central aspect of this theme was the recognition that in most classes, consistent low level disruption such as pupils talking over teachers and other pupils, pupils shouting out answers, and pupils talking to each other were commonplace. This resulted in teachers using constant small behavioural corrections. Often, this was teachers continually saying ‘shhh’ throughout the lesson, having to countdown in order for pupils to be quiet, but also potentially using threats to try and stop the behaviour escalating. Various small behavioural corrections were made throughout most of the lessons, things like

*“you need to make a start now” (S2, O2),*

*“can we just focus on what we need to do” (S2, O7),*

and

*“get on with your work, I’m going to start reading them” (S2, O10)*

were commonplace throughout the observations. This kind of low-level disruption, whilst not particularly serious is distracting for both pupils and teachers. It could be indicative of a lack of respectful relationships within the classroom, as the constant disruption is disrespectful to the teacher and shows a lack of communication at some point. The promotion of mutually respectful relationships is an important tenet of RA (Kokotsaki, 2013). Alongside the focus group data where pupils voiced feelings of injustice at how they were treated, this could potentially show a lack of respectful relationships and communications between staff and pupils. Providing further discussion of this could infer that behaviour management wishing the school was not working in a way that was beneficial to everyone, and therefore not providing a healthy school culture.

There was however a surprising lack of raised voices in the classrooms, both from the teachers and pupils. Teachers, for the most part, spoke calmly in most classrooms situations and the researcher did not observe one instance where a teacher shouted at a pupil. Although effective and calm communication between all members of the school community are an important part of RA (Skinns *et al*, 2009), they are also a central facet of effective classroom management and not necessarily just a restorative trait. The absence of raised voices, a calmer classroom atmosphere, and an overall reduction in low-level disruption were notable findings in another RA in schools implementation

(Kokotsaki, 2013). Kokotsaki (2013) also found that there were fewer distractions in the classroom that had previously been caused by a minority of pupils misbehaving. Links can be seen here with pupils discussion of their inclination toward ‘proportional punishment’ that can be seen in subquestion 5. The difference in behavioural problems and low level disruption was particularly apparent in different subjects. This potentially ties in with engagement levels fluctuating between different subjects being taught. Overall, low-level disruption was a larger problem for *School Two* than any larger behavioural issues. The time spent trying to maintain focus and quiet was extensive and took over a lot of the teachers attention. Restorative skills that were apparent throughout the observations were active listening, pupils taking responsibility for their learning, and, pupils working cooperatively. However, it is difficult to argue whether this is due to the use of RA in the school or simply because they are good behaviour management techniques.

Low-level disruption in classrooms was identified by OFSTED as a major concern of schools in the United Kingdom (OFSTED, 2014). The typical behaviours they found contributing to this low-level disruption were: unnecessary talking or chatting, shouting out in the classroom without permission, being slow to follow instructions and start work, and using mobile phones (OFSTED, 2014). It was found that whilst most teachers have come to accept a certain amount of low-level disruption throughout, and one fifth of teachers attempted to carry on regardless of the disruption. This was apparent throughout the school two observations, although teacher would “shhh” the pupils, mainly they just tried to ignore the disruption and continue with the lesson. This led to a loss of teaching time in every lesson observed. Skinns *et al* (2009) note that inappropriate behaviour and low-level disruption can be incredibly time consuming for teachers, although initially a restorative approach may increase the time taken to deal with these incidents in the long term it will greatly reduce the time taken to deal with these situations. Teachers found that constant low-level disruption in their classroom can adversely affect their confidence in their teaching abilities and they often felt unable to discuss the problem with more senior staff (OFSTED, 2014). The majority of teachers either accepted low-level disruption as a part of their teaching or attempted to ignore it (OFSTED, 2014). OFSTED (2014) argue that one of the main ways to get rid of low-level disruption was consistency in how teachers deal with behavioural incidents across all staff and pupils, and that pupils clearly know what is expected of them. This links in with ideas of boundaries and expectations that were a theme from *School One* earlier in this question.

#### *Concluding remarks for subquestion one*

By exploring each schools reasons for implementing RA, and how the restorative officer perceived the reasoning behind the implementation an insight into the specific school cultures is allowed.

Restorative officer one believed that by implementing RA both schools were trying to achieve a

*“consistent calm approach from all members of staff when dealing with any conflict situation and when communicating with each other and pupils” (RAO1).*

Restorative officer two felt that the each school was trying to implement RA for different reasons. For *School One*, it was felt that implementation was based on the use of RA as a means of conflict resolution. By using a peer mentoring aspect of restorative approaches, it was felt that *School One* were encouraging pupils to take ownership of the schools RA and empower them to help create a more harmonious school environment. For *School Two*, the restorative officer felt that RA was being used as tool to make pupils see the impact of their challenging behaviours, predominantly against teaching staff. This is corroborated by a theme that will be discussed in subquestion two, where teachers in *School Two* voiced the importance consequences to behaviour. It was felt that the main emphasis was the disruption that challenging behaviour brings about to teaching staff. The first restorative officer distinguished no differences between each school in terms of implementation, however this may be because this was at the fairly early stages of implementation and as time has gone on restorative officer two has began to differentiate where the two schools differ.

The different reasoning behind implementation could potentially highlight differences in the school culture. Although the quantitative data does not highlight any significant differences between *School One* and *School Two*, a number of subtle differences have emerged from the qualitative data. Pupils in *School One* appear generally happier with how they are treated and how ‘democratic’ the school is. Other data shows that the culture in *School One*, although still punitive to an extent, has more of an emphasis on relationship building, and lacking low-level disruption that was apparent in *School Two*. A school culture that is based on positive interpersonal relationships is similar to Vaandering and Morrison’s (2009) concept of a relational ecology, and this could potentially make it easier for staff to accept and use restorative approaches. Skinns *et al* (2009) and Stokes and Shaw (2005) both point out that often in successful cases of implementation, the introduction of RA may not have represented such a fundamental shift in thinking and school culture. Schools that already use strategies and have structures in place that are similar to RA find it easier to then implement a more structured form of RA which could be the case for *School One*.

*Q2. What factors affected the teachers' perceptions of the implementation and use of restorative approaches?*

To answer subquestion two it is necessary to use a mix of both the quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data is used to investigate teacher characteristics of different teachers and whether this has any links with their ideology. Similarly to subquestion one the qualitative data will build on this looking for crossover between different factors, and providing contextual evidence from *School One* and *School Two* on factors that affected how teachers perceived RA and whether they utilised RA. Again there are some similarities between each school, particularly when it came to practical factors. However, building on the answer to subquestion one it seems that certain aspects of the culture in *School One* meant that teachers were more focused on relationship building within the school, and less so on punishment. Whereas in *School Two*, approaches similar to RA were not used as often. The tests used to investigate between RJI and PCI relationships will now be relayed, along with significant or not significant relationships

*Age Groups*

To check for statistically significant differences in RJI and PCI across age groups a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used, using the post-hoc test (Tukey) to identify any specific mean differences between age groups. For *School One*, there were no significant difference across the age groups and significant post-hoc comparisons for RJI ( $f(4) = 1.934$ ,  $p = 0.144$ ). For *School One*, there were no significant difference across the age groups and significant post-hoc comparisons for PCI ( $f(4) = 0.175$ ,  $p = 0.949$ ). For *School Two*, there were no significant differences across the age groups and no significant post-hoc comparisons for RJI ( $f(4) = 0.979$ ,  $p=0.437$ ). For *School Two*, there were no significant differences across the age groups and no significant post-hoc comparisons for PCI ( $f(4) = 0.223$ ,  $p = 0.923$ ). For *School One* and *School Two*, to check for statistically significant differences in RJI across age groups a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used, using the post-hoc test (Tukey) to identify any specific mean differences between age groups. Across both the schools there were no statistically significant differences between age groups and RJI ( $f(4) = 1.526$ ,  $p = 0.209$ ). To check for statistically significant differences in PCI across age groups a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used, using the post-hoc test (Tukey) to identify any specific mean differences between age groups. Across both the schools there were no statistically significant differences between age groups and PCI total ( $f(4) = 0.167$ ,  $p = 0.954$ ). To check for statistically significant differences in RJI and PCI across genders an independent samples T-Test was employed. Across both the schools there was no significant differences between PCI total and gender ( $t(53) = 2.493$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ).



### *Gender*

To check for statistically significant differences in RJI across genders an independent samples T-Test was employed. For *School One*, there was no significant relationship between RJI total and gender ( $t(23) = -0.767$ ,  $p = 0.451$ ). For *School One*, there was no significant relationship between PCI and gender ( $t(23) = 3.6$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ). To check for statistically significant differences in RJI across genders an independent samples T-Test was employed. For *School Two*, there were no significant differences between RJI and gender ( $t(29) = 0.441$ ,  $p = 0.662$ ). For *School Two*, there was no significant differences between PCI and gender ( $t(28) = 0.079$ ,  $p = 0.938$ ). To check for statistically significant differences in RJI and PCI across genders an independent samples T-Test was employed. Aftab and Khatoon (2013) found that typically females tend to show higher PCI and a more custodial approach to their counterparts. Lee, Loeb and Marks (1995) suggested that the organisation characteristics of schools mean that men tend to be more custodial than women. Therefore, gender was of interest to the research. Across both the schools there was no significant differences between the RJI total and gender ( $t(54) = -0.302$ ,  $p = 0.764$ ).

### *Length of career*

The length of career was investigated as previous research suggested that as teachers were socialised in to schools they may become more custodial (Hoy, 1977). To check for statistically significant differences between RJI and PCI and the length of an individuals career an ANOVA was employed, using post-hoc test (Tukey) to identify any specific mean differences between career lengths. This was employed for each school separately and across both the schools. Across both schools there were no statistically significant differences in RJI scores and length of career ( $f(55) = 1.221$ ,  $p = 0.313$ ). Across both schools there were no statistically significant differences in PCI scores and length of career ( $f(54) = 1.54$ ,  $p = 0.195$ ). For *School One*, there were no significant differences in RJI ( $f(24) = 1.383$ ,  $p = 0.291$ ) and PCI ( $f(24) = 1.53$ ,  $p = 0.227$ ) scores and length of career. For *School One*, there were no significant differences in ( $f(24) = 1.53$ ,  $p = 0.227$ ) scores and length of career. For *School Two*, there were no significant differences in RJI ( $f(30) = 0.706$ ,  $p = 0.624$ ). For *School Two*, there were no significant differences in PCI ( $f(24) = 1.53$ ,  $p = 0.227$ ) scores and length of career.

Whilst length of career had no significant results in the quantitative data one of the distinguishing themes when discussing what affects behavioural management was that of career length. The majority of staff interviewed in each school felt that as their career had progressed they had become more comfortable in the classroom and a lot less strict than when they were beginning teachers. In

particular, it was discussed that new teachers were almost ‘thrown in’ at the deep end and have very little real classroom experience. This theme was investigated by both the interviews and the questionnaires.

The codes that came under length of career and formed the core of this theme were those that discussed becoming more comfortable with their authority in the classroom and being able to improvise more whilst teaching as their career progressed. Teachers felt as though often pupils see members of staff as ‘not human’ but as they advance with their career and allow more of their personality to come out this builds a rapport with the pupils and helps with relationship building and trust building. One teacher said

*“In the beginning I was very very strict and punitive and very black and white, and not realising there’s a lot of grey areas with children” (S1, I4).*

*“It’s easier now than it was, I think at the beginning you so want to get everything right... that makes you stricter but it’s easier now” (S1, I6)*

Interestingly, a code that came in here was staff members having children of their own. Members of staff in each school stated that once they had children of their own their attitudes towards the best way to deal with pupils changed. After having their own children they realised what is important in behaviour management and this does not always translate to shouting at a pupil, but rather addressing underlying issues. A potential area for further exploration here is using the PCI and RJI to investigate whether those with children differed to those without children. It has previously been discussed how a restorative approaches are similar to approaches used to deal with wrongdoing within a family unit, as accountability and responsibility are sought, and the majority of the time relationships are healed with the wrong-doer reintegrated. Although there were no significant result for relationships between PCI, RJI and career length, if the mean PCI for *School One* is looked at:

Table seventeen: School One: Length of career and PCI Mean

Length of Career	N	PCI Mean
1-5	5	58 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.83)
6-10	4	53.5 ( <i>sd</i> = 8.26)
11-15	4	58.5 ( <i>sd</i> = 5.44)
16-20	6	58.1 ( <i>sd</i> = 6.73)
21-25	1	55.7 ( <i>sd</i> = 4.76)
25+	5	49.2 ( <i>sd</i> = 7.39)

It can be seen that those who had been teaching for longer than 25 years were seemingly substantially more humanistic in ideology, than those who had been teaching for any of the other timeframes. Potentially, if a higher number of staff had taken the questionnaire some relationships would have emerged here. From the qualitative data, members of staff interviewed in each school discussed the fact that now they are no longer new teachers they feel a lot more comfortable in their pastoral roles towards pupils, but also that if things do not go to plan they feel more equipped to handle the issues without becoming stressed.

One staff member in *School Two* mentioned that at the beginning of their career they wanted to be

*“much more chilled out and be that loveable, friendly teacher that all the kids would listen to because she’s so funky and cool”* (S2, I3)

However, soon realised that that approach did not work. In particular they found that this led to a blurring of boundaries between teachers and pupils that in the long run was unhelpful

*“I knew another student who’d try and get down on the kids level and the kids would get too close to a point where you’d have to tell them to back off and then they’d be like ‘aw I thought you were cool’”* (S2, I3).

A member of staff in *School Two* voiced thoughts that whilst not everyone has active elements of RA in their teaching, it is something she believes teachers pick up further down the line (S2, I3). This ties in with ideas that when teachers first start they are so focused on the curriculum aspect of their career, that the pastoral aspect gets somewhat neglected. Early career teachers have previously reported that they were being ‘left to their own devices’ more often than not when starting in a new

school, without support or guidance or mentorship to help the development of their professional ability (HoCEE, 2011). RA could provide particular help here, by taking a proactive approach to behaviour and classroom management and reducing the likelihood that behavioural issues will arise in the classroom. However, a suggestion here would be providing RA training earlier for teachers so they do not feel as though they are just being taught another ‘tool in the box’ of behaviour management from their school which may seem overwhelming and unnecessary.

### *Staff Role*

To check for statistically significant differences in RJI across the different staff roles an independent samples T-test was employed across the two main response categories in each school, teaching staff and learning support. For *School One*, there were no significant differences between RJI and role ( $t(21) = -0.579$ ,  $p = 0.569$ ). For *School One*, there were no significant difference between PCI and role ( $t(21) = -3.033$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ). For *School Two*, there were no significant differences between RJI and role ( $t(25) = -0.292$ ,  $p = 0.772$ ). For *School Two*, there were no significant differences between PCI and role ( $t(24) = -1.427$ ,  $p = 0.167$ ). Across both the schools there were no significant differences between RJI and role ( $t(48) = -0.90$ ,  $p = 0.373$ ) and PCI and role ( $t(47) = -3.03$ ,  $p = 0.04$ ).

No significant differences show again that members of staff in both schools are not extreme in their ideologies, they fall in the normal ranges for the PCI and RJI as will most schools. This is of interest as it can be assumed that most schools will fall into the ‘normal’ range and therefore not had any particular strong ideologies. However, there continues to emerge differences in how the schools accept restorative approaches, and this could come down to factors that are not as strongly related to ideology.

For the qualitative data, the core of this theme was how senior staff were very important in the implementation process and the active part they took in trying to promote RA. In *School One* the head teacher showed an active interest and supportive attitude towards the implementation of RA and the research, though largely left the implementation to other members of senior staff and the restorative officer. One of the main issues regarding a successful implementation of RA in schools is the continuing commitment and vision of key stakeholders in the schools to make RA a part of the school ethos (Blood, 2005, Morrison, 2005). Lloyd *et al* (2007) found that the commitment to RA and modelling of restorative behaviour by key members of staff (senior staff) was a valued and helpful part of the implementation for other members of staff, and encouraged them to openly enquire about RA and try and make use of it. The importance of having dedicated members of staff

that enthusiastically continue to try and encourage a more restorative, less punitive culture is necessary for the successful and longstanding implementation of RA (Hopkins, 2004). One of the single most important factors on whether a school will successfully implement RA is the active support and acceptance of the head teachers, this is due to their overriding influence on the school culture (YJB, 2005). In *School Two* there were a number of staffing changes that meant the ‘restorative champions’ were not able to carry out conferences as they once were due to time constraints. The researcher did not meet the head teacher of *School Two*, and the drive for RA mainly came from the deputy head teacher. RA officer two showed significant concern that there was no member of the senior management in the *School Two* who took the lead on the implementation of RA in the organisation and this meant that the implementation of RA was not supported on a school-wide level and did not have the same ‘drive’ that RA in *School One* had.

Another senior member of staff in *School One* who has a lot of input in to disciplinary practices in the school voiced how pleased he was that although members of staff do have different teaching styles, there were a lot of “*naturally restorative*” (S1, 14) methods being used by teachers who just see it as good practice and that restorative language was being heard more and more in the classrooms and corridors. In *School One*, although RA has not yet formally been written in to the school structure, the head of discipline in the school is one of the main stakeholders in RA and is very keen for it to become a ‘mainstay’ in the school. The fact that pupils in *School One* seemed aware of restorative language and the importance of building relationships shows that RA is potentially becoming part of the general school structure.

### *Resources*

At the core of this there were the persistent and recurring codes throughout staff interviews that related to the lack of resources in place to adequately implement restorative approaches. One of the greatest challenges that staff felt they were faced with was how stretched for time they were between teaching, administrative duties, and dealing with behavioural management issues. These fluctuating priorities meant that getting into the habit of using RA was difficult for some staff. In *School One* the recognition that RA was a large investment that will take time to develop due to various facts was apparent. However this did not seem to detract from the enthusiasm that one of the main instigators of RA felt. The staff member said

*“I’ve come into it in a situation where there are a lot of willing people already and I’ve been very lucky, also the headmaster is very keen and it’s been a fantastic opportunity... generally staff are respectful of what we’re trying to do and can see we’re working as a*

*team to try and improve things even though it's slow but perhaps it will be lasting. I'm not going out there and banging my drum and converting, I'm doing it quietly. People get defensive if you tell them their practice is wrong, I'm letting people come to me after seeing successes and they're asking, how can I do that, which I think is a much better situation to be in... I can see the frustration of the staff, and parents when I have to raise awareness which is difficult with parents as they see it as difficult to transfer the steps in to helping with their issues so it's really difficult how to get them up to speed always. But it's definitely about changing a culture, I think we are slowly but steadily" (S1, 11).*

Although it is acknowledged that not all staff are involved there is clearly an initiative to persevere with RA in *School One* and an excitement about the small changes that are already apparent throughout the school. In the literature, time is one of the main factors cited for loss of enthusiasm and drive to implement RA (Lloyd *et al*, 2007). It is accepted that in order for a school to be “wholly” restorative a successful implementation takes up to five years in order for the school to adapt to the approach (Blood, 2005; Blood and Thorsborne, 2005; Morrison, 2005; Hopkins, 2004).

In *School Two*, one member of staff felt that due to continual targets and cutbacks the teachers were not allowed to let the pupils fail. It was felt that this ‘pushing pupils through’ led to a lack of discipline and a higher prevalence of behavioural management issues. Constraints placed on staff members by budget cutbacks and staff cutbacks were felt more keenly in *School Two* and discussed as one of the main causes of stress in their jobs.

Time was a large factor on the reluctance to implement RA in each school. Both the time a formal conference can take and the time the implementation of RA into the school takes. In *School Two* in particular the time it takes to carry out RA was seen as a large downfall of the approach, members of staff felt that it was much easier to either send a pupil out or have some harsher words with them rather than have to recite restorative script or arrange a conference. One member of staff said

*“it's kind of in a busy school day we're teaching so much it's kind of having the time to do it, that headspace to make it a part of what you're like” (S2, 11).*

This shows a recognition that the use of RA is time consuming and takes a change in attitude if it is going to be used regularly, and therefore an understanding of the change in culture that RA would mean for the school if it was to be the only approach used. The first RA officer also felt that the availability of time for both teachers and the RA officer was a major issue in implementation. They

felt as though time was lacking in each school in order to raise awareness and train members of staff. For RA officer two, the main concern with *School Two* was that apart from the work of the restorative officer, no other restorative work was being conducted by the school staff. It was felt that the structural change of staffing meant that there was very restricted availability of staff to engage with RA and staff had very limited time to become directly involved. With *School One*, the second restorative officer showed a concern that in *School One* the restricted flexibility of the restorative officer meant that they were only able to be situated in the school two days a week (Monday and Tuesday), with cases then being held till the following week. It was felt staff members wanted to engage (and some did) but were also cautious because they were restricted in the amount of time that was available for them to engage with or conduct restorative approaches. As an issue, resources provide a large barrier to implementation. If the time is not in place in order for teacher to be able to engage with RA then there is little probability that RA will be able to infiltrate itself into the school culture in any meaningful way. This finding is mirrored throughout the literature where issues with time and money for training and raising awareness provided massive barriers to implementation, especially in schools where change was needed.

#### *Restorative lines of questioning*

A theme that occurred for *School One* that was not observed for *School Two* was the more sustained use of a more restorative line of questioning, rather than a more traditional punitive line of questioning. At the core of this theme were codes relating to the number of times that more restorative lines of questioning were observed being used by staff. Often when there was disruption in a classroom, particularly between two or more pupils, the go-to question for the teacher was “what’s happened?” rather than “what did you do?”. In three cases, a pupil apologised to another pupils not because they were told to, but rather because they were asked by the teacher what they could do to make it right. The encouragement to take responsibility of ones actions and how they affect others is seen as one of the central restorative tenets (Hopkins, 2002). This is very in line with a restorative form of questioning and inquiry into an incident. The avoidance of ‘blame’ dialogue is a feature of a restorative culture within a school (Kokotsaki, 2013).

It is well accepted throughout the literature that in order for RA to be successful in schools there needs to be attitudinal changes amongst staff that facilitate restorative language and conversation. This involves a change in the way that staff view punishment in their schools, but also in the way they view interpersonal relationships (Morrison *et al*, 2006; Blood and Thorsborne, 2005; Johnston, 2002; Wachtel, 1999). Whilst punishment does remain one of the main ways of dealing with misbehaviour in each school, members of staff in *School One* seem particularly open to the idea that

interpersonal relationships with the pupils are very important in preventing misbehaviour and dealing with issues adequately when they arise. Whereas in *School Two*, the formal approaches were being used by the restorative officer and a very select few members of staff but on a whole the teaching staff were not familiar with the language or central tenets of restorative approaches. This mirrors the fact that *School Two* did not intend to implement RA on a whole-school level, rather use it when deemed appropriate.

It is identified that in all schools that have implemented RA there remain members of staff that appear to be resistant (Kane *et al*, 2006). It would appear that in *School Two* that rather than resistance to RA there remains indifference amongst many members of staff to restorative approaches. This was mirrored by data from both restorative officers who were concerned that they were the only people carrying out restorative conference within the school, and that when they left restorative approaches would not be continued. In *School One* there remains members of senior staff who are very dedicated to trying to use RA in the schools, whereas in *School Two* this has decreased somewhat. As is frequently shown throughout the literature, the persistence of key members of staff in implementing RA is vital for a successful outcome.

#### *Understanding of 'restorative'*

A theme that developed from both sets of interviews, but was more consistent in *School Two* data was the understanding of what it meant to be restorative. The essence of this theme was that often teachers would refer to what they thought as restorative, when it was not in line with what the literature would deem a restorative approach. In *School Two* there seemed to be a lot of confusion surrounding RA and what it means to be restorative. A member of staff in *School Two* said that being restorative comes naturally to them

*"because I don't like being mean" (S2, II).*

This just solidifies the idea that in *School Two* RA is seen as a somewhat 'soft' approach and involves 'not being mean'. Whilst this may be a part of RA, it is not the only intended use. A major finding from Lloyd *et al* (2007) evaluation was that there was not a consistent idea across the schools of what being restorative actually was, so what one person may see as restorative was not always perceived as this by others involved. Skinns *et al* (2004) found that the idea that staff are already using RA were often used by staff as a means of resisting change, often when there was concern about taking away more conventional punishments. It was clear in *School Two* that some



members of staff thought they were already being restorative, but shows an incomplete understanding of what this actually meant. It is argued that in order for RA to work successfully in schools there needs to be integrated restorative principles and philosophies throughout the school management and the schools structures (Hopkins, 2006). One of the factors that will affect the success of an implementation are how well pre-existing measures in the school are compliant with RA or changed in order to be in line with a more restorative philosophy (Blood and Thorsborne, 2006). Lloyd *et al* (2007) found one of the major challenges faced by secondary schools was revisiting disciplinary policies to facilitate restorative approaches. In *School Two*, RA have not been integrated in to the structure of management or disciplinary system in the school.

In *School Two*, one of the recurring themes regarding pupils was that other pupils may see RA as unfair because it's a 'soft' option. The same theme was identified for the focus groups in *School One* also. One member of staff said

*"I think children and society have changed, it's not disciplinarian anymore, so you have to build relationships with kids for them to learn... I think discipline wise... we have more disruptive pupils because you can't just remove them from school anymore. Even ten years ago they'd just been thrown out of school, well that's not good for society because it puts the problem elsewhere. But you didn't have as many disruptions in schools then. So you have children in school who almost sort of get away with it because of a more restorative approach but is that better in the long term for society? Probably yes." (S2, I1).*

Whilst another said

*"Some of our better kids feel 'what are they doing? why are they still here?' so you do have that unfairness element of it with our good kids then. Why don't we get that when we don't misbehave." (S2, I5).*

In particular there seemed to be the misconception that RA may not mean consequences for those who cause harm

*"but they did punishment too so it wasn't wholly restorative, if they misbehaved there were definite consequences... there have to be consequences even if they're not punishment so in some ways, how do they improve if there aren't consequences... in some other ways pupils need to see that there are consequences to the behaviour as well" (S2, I1).*

This worry about RA being a ‘soft’ approach is mirrored throughout the *School Two* data and shows an understanding of the fundamentals of RA that is differing to the literature, however is in line with other research projects that have experienced resistance in the implementation of restorative approaches. Obviously RA was not meant to be introduced in a whole-school way and there was no inclination to increase use of RA like there was in *School One*, and therefore there could be less awareness amongst staff. One member of staff said

*“I think some teachers have a heightened awareness of what’s about to happen and they can kind of use RA to kind of preempt misbehaviour” (S2, I3).*

Again this shows a misunderstanding of what it actually means to be restorative that is apparent throughout the data from *School Two*. Also, the need for any behavioural management initiative to be practical was very apparent in *School Two* and some staff members felt that in RA the practical applications were not immediately seen by the teachers

*“it can take a while for them to see the relevance of it [restorative approaches] too.. the teachers feel it needs to be practical and sometimes if the kids are really messing around it’s easier to call the on duty teacher and get them removed rather than try and use restorative” (S2, I3).*

Central to this for *School Two* is considering the implications of what a misunderstanding of being restorative can mean for implementation. There are links here with the difficulty that some members of staff in *School Two* voiced of translating restorative theory into practice. If an individual believes they are already being restorative, then it may mean they are unlikely to invest as fully with training that is available and changing the way they do things.

For *School One*, at the core of this theme were also codes relating to a understanding of being restorative. The increasing popularity of social media was mentioned by teachers in each school and how this adds an element into pupils disputes that can be hard to control and can cause serious problems. Issues with bullying and social technology are now more common than ever and members of staff in *School One* felt that RA were particularly helpful for dealing with cases such as these because they really allow pupils to feel the impact of their actions on others, in the hope that they will not do it again. An understanding of the central tenets of RA shown here by acknowledging the kind of benefits RA could bring to a school and where it could be particularly

helpful. This coincides with the understanding from *School One* that pupils need to have empathy in order to be able to take part meaningfully in a restorative process and shows a genuine understanding of restorative approaches.

*School One* also showed a greater capacity for understanding RA as there were a number of codes linked in with a concern that RA was not appropriate for all pupils. Whilst this may sound like a negative, it actually shows an understanding of the various characteristics an individual needs to be able to possess in order to meaningfully take part in a restorative conference. These were mainly surrounding pupils capacity to participate in restorative approaches, how pupils have changed over the years, and how pupils perceive restorative approaches. Throughout *School One* a number of issues were raised with regard to pupil capacity to understand and involve themselves with restorative approaches. Similarly to the current research, Kokotsaki (2013) found that in the implementation of RA in Durham teachers often felt that there was a skills deficit amongst pupils and their ability to express their thought and feelings and engage with RA meaningfully. In Durham, it was felt that the development of emotional literacy in pupils was key. For *School One* the lack of ability for some pupils to empathise with others was seen as problematic and a reason to continue the use of punishment. Whilst this is a resistance to RA, it also shows enhanced understanding of the skills needed. As one member of staff in *School One* said

*“it only works if someone has empathy” (S1, I1)*

#### *Whole-School Approach to being restorative*

The narrative that this theme creates was that senior staff members from each school made it clear that a whole-school restorative approach would not be viable to use in each school. Partly due to the perceived need for punishment in order to maintain order and discipline, and partly because staff would not accept traditional punishments (detention, sending pupils out of the classroom) being taken away from them. Whilst it was acknowledged that RA had been helpful in certain cases and that the restorative officer was a great help in implementing restorative approaches, staff members seemed unsure about the longevity of RA in the school. In *School One*, it was mentioned that RA was

*“I think one of our mainstays... but I think it needs to work in connection with punishment we won’t be getting rid of that” (S1, I1).*

It was also referred to as a ‘tool’ in one of the interviews

*“it’s great to have it there as a tool that we can use if needed” (S1, I9).*

For a whole-school approach to be successful in a school, it needs to be about more than simply carrying out a conference in a situation where harm has been caused (Skinns *et al*, 2009). It is possible that the situation of a restorative officer in both the schools has somewhat hindered the implementation of RA on a broader level, as it allowed teachers to feel as though RA was being implemented by others in the school and they did not need to engage as much for this reason.

Lloyd *et al* (2007) found that one of the challenges to implementing RA was recruiting staff who were amenable to restorative approaches. One of the key stakeholders of RA in *School One* had previously worked in a larger international school where RA were used to deal with a whole range of problems that arose, particularly due to the multicultural nature of the school. If this member of staff was particularly amenable to RA and in a position to be a motivating force in the school then this could explain partly why *School One* appears to be further along in the implementation process than *School Two*. However, it is still interesting to explore why both *School One* and *School Two* believe there is still a need for punishment and that RA will not be a whole school endeavour. Even though these themes were also apparent for *School One*, the other qualitative data suggests that they already worked in a way that was closer to a restorative approach to begin with.

### *Restorative Skills*

In *School One* although RA were not always mentioned explicitly teachers placed a large emphasis on relationship building with pupils and the importance of creating and maintaining good relationships with pupils in order to facilitate classroom management but also in order to allow the pupils to feel safe and looked after. One of the many facets of RA is improving relationships within schools. Cameron and Thorsborne (2001) argue that RA in schools should primarily focus on all relationships within a school community and teach all members of the community the value of these relationships. In *School One* particularly there was a recognition that relationships were of the utmost importance in trying to control a classroom, but also in order to make the pupils school experience a positive one in terms of the pastoral side of schooling. A wide range of restorative skills being used within a school culture will move it closer to the ‘relational ecology’ discussed widely in *Chapter Three*.

There are numerous restorative skills that staff in *School One* seemed to deem important, even if they did not know that these skills were strictly restorative. These skills include: active listening,

mutual respect, honesty, compassion, patience, and respecting pupils perspectives (Hopkins, 2002). The members of staff who discussed the importance of relationship building placed great emphasis on the fact that their relationship they build with pupils should not be about friendship. The phrases ‘building trust’ and ‘mutual respect’ were used and seen as particularly important in developing the kind of relationship with pupils where disruptive behaviour was kept to a minimum, but if it did arise, was easier to deal with. An emphasis was placed on the importance of listening in teacher-pupil relationships and hearing what the pupil has to say without overpowering them. One member of staff mentioned how ‘empowering’ it can be for pupils when teaching staff actually take the time to listen to them, and this is one of the main elements of a restorative approach. Also the necessity for ‘satisfactory outcomes’ for all involved in an incident were mentioned in *School One*. One of the more prevalent definitions of RA is

*“The main concepts of RA are: acting towards each other in a kind, helpful and respectful manner; understanding the impact of one’s own actions on others; and, when harm has been caused, a fair process that allows everyone to learn from the experiences and everyone to be satisfied with the outcome” (McCluskey et al, 2008, p.).*

Although not viewed as strictly restorative a lot of these ideas and themes are apparent throughout the *School One* interviews. One member of staff in *School one* said

*“I think teachers should be naturally restorative if I’m honest. If you’re in a job where you have to deal with children you should naturally be a restorative person. I think primary school teachers tend to be quite restorative because of the age group they’re working with. I mean if you were to ask any teacher in this school they probably would be aware that we’re going with RA and they’re aware that it’s used quite extensively and often people are taken out of class and heads of year are involved. The staff are aware it’s going on.” (S1, I6).*

Numerous discussions like this were coded from *School One*. There was a definite recognition amongst staff in *School One* that even though they felt restorative approaches were not appropriate all the time and were sometimes too time consuming, they were somehow one of the ‘right’ ways to be dealing with pupils. Wachtel (1999) places RA and interventions on a continuum from formal to informal. In *School One*, it seemed apparent that there was both informal and formal approaches being used on some level. The more formal approaches were being used by the restorative officers, whereas the informal approaches were recognised by teachers as an important way to foster positive teacher-pupil interactions. It would appear that in *School One* restorative skills were seen as more of

an aspect of the school culture, even if this was not recognised by all members of the school staff. The school staff showed a recognition that these types of skills were important in providing a healthy school culture, and also, were effective means of behaviour management.

#### *Concluding remarks for subquestion two*

By combining research subquestions one and two the intricacies of implementation and various factors that affect the implementation are beginning to emerge. The restorative officers provided some barriers to implementation they felt were apparent in the schools and their perception of implementation is important for context in the research. For *School One* and *School Two*, the first restorative officer identified challenges with implementation in each school. A major concern was that staff and the RA officer felt as though RA should be driven by the Local Education Authority in order for it to be used consistently and to develop properly. There was also a concern from the first RA officer that attitudes amongst staff were not always positive and they were worried they could not properly develop RA in their classrooms due to its theoretical complexity. This can be seen in the theme '*understanding of restorative*'. Restorative officer two felt that *School One* has not implemented RA effectively due to the LEA not supporting, promoting or guiding the staff with implementation, and there were no expectations in place from them regarding implementation that this slowed the process. Restorative officer two also mentioned the peer mentor scheme implemented in order to give the pupils some input with RA was not successful in the first year as they did not base the implementation on the literature. However, the school has adjusted the implementation from the initial experience and implemented it differently the next academic year. Overall, the second restorative officer noted the use of RA in any conflict between pupils and the implementation of a peer-mentoring scheme in order to use RA as a self-governing tool was a fundamental step towards a more restorative school culture. Restorative officer two identified significant obstacles to the implementation of RA in *School Two*. They felt a number of the staff had rather negative views of RA and believed that it was not capable of holding pupils accountable for their actions and is unsuitable for a school setting, which is mirrored throughout the data analysis from *School Two*.

The interviews, open-ended questionnaires, focus groups, and observations have so far showed that the culture and staff in *School One* seem more susceptible to implementing and accepting RA within the school. The data from the restorative officers supported the idea that RA was more enthusiastically received in *School One* than in *School Two*. This suggests that some of the differences that can be seen in the culture and attitudes in each school may have a very real effect

on the implementation of RA. Subquestion two has addressed a number of themes that both show factors that can constrain the implementation of RA in schools, but also factors that may ease the implementation

*Q3. Did the way the teachers enact authority influence their acceptance and use of restorative approaches?*

In Chapter Two and Chapter Three of this thesis the literature reviews discussed the possibility that some teachers may resist the use of RA due to it threatening the type of authority that they enact in the classroom. It was suggested that some types of authority (more traditional, custodial methods) were more likely to be threatened by the shift in thinking that RA promotes.<sup>14</sup> Regarding the quantitative data, a significant relationship was found for the analysis of both schools data and *School Two* data looking at the relationship between the separate PCI and RJI tools. The relationship between these was of interest as they each portray separate characteristics of the schools and the staff, however humanistic and restorative could be seen to be more similar, and therefore it may be expected that the more humanistic someone is, the more restorative they are. In a highly custodial school, the main concern is primarily order obtained through high control (Hoy, 2001). In a more humanistic school, the school is viewed as a community where members learn through interaction and experience (Hoy, 2001). The humanistic end of the continuum is more in keeping with restorative values as there is an emphasis place on community, learning and relationships, much like a restorative ethos. The restorative justice ideology (RJI) identified empathy, concern, perspective-taking, personal distress and self-efficacy as important characteristics of acting restoratively (Roland *et al*, 2012). In order to determine whether there is a relationship between RJI and PCI scores Pearson's correlation coefficient was employed. This test was carried out to investigate whether there was any relationship between how a person scored in terms of being restorative, custodial and humanistic. This was carried out for each school individually and also across both the schools. Across both the schools there was a significant negative relationship between the RJI total and PCI total ( $r = -0.312$ ,  $N = 55$ ,  $p = 0.020$ ). For *School One* there was no significant relationship between RJI and PCI scores ( $r = -.084$ ,  $N = 25$ ,  $p = 0.689$ ). For *School Two* there was a strong negative relationship between the RJI total and PCI total ( $r = -0.554$ ,  $N = 30$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). This means that there was a relationship between scoring highly on the restorative scale, and being more humanistic. Roland *et al* (2012) expected this result and this

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<sup>14</sup> For a more detailed discussion of authority and restorative approaches please see page...

strengthens the validity of their scale. It suggests that teachers who adhere to a more traditional view of authority may find it more difficult to use restorative approaches, this will be explored in depth in the discussion chapter of this thesis. The thematic analysis so far suggest that *School One* has a more ‘relational’ ecology<sup>15</sup>, than *School Two* and therefore it is easier for them to implement restorative approaches.

### *Engagement*

In each school, engagement was one of the main codes from interviews that recurred with regards to classroom management and maintaining order in the classroom. The core of this theme was the recognition by teachers in each school that when pupils are engaged they are less likely to misbehave. In *School One* staff used approaches such as iPads and interactive whiteboards in order to keep pupils engaged in the work and the subject matter and felt it was the most important factor in classroom management

*“keeping them engaged is the main thing I think” (S1, I6).*

There was a marked difference in each school between different subjects and how best to control behaviour in different types of classrooms. Whilst engagement was seen as the most important factors in maintaining control, engagement manifests itself differently in different subjects. In *School One* particularly, there was the recognition that in different subjects different levels of control are needed over the classroom. One member of staff said that with their subject

*“everything is more active and the pupils are talking about their work and that’s how they engage with it... it’s a very different learning environment to other subjects. I think subjects like English and Art lend themselves to teachers making the pupils feel like what they say is valued” (S1, I4).*

There was a recognition that the most important factor was ensuring that the pupils were capable of doing the work, as when they did not understand it was when they started losing interest in the work. Another member of staff said you have to

*“sell your subject... show them how much you love it so that they’re inspired by it” (S2, I3).*

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<sup>15</sup> A relational ecology was discussed in-depth in Chapter Three



The idea of engagement as the best way to keep control of a classroom is prevalent throughout the literature. This is in line with the idea that teachers ought to have “professional authority” over a classroom and this is gained by being an expert in ones field and also engaging the pupils in the work (Pace, 2003). Sullivan *et al* (2014) found that the majority of disruptive behaviour within a classroom was disengaged behaviour and that in order to overcome this it was down to the teacher to adequately engage the pupils in the work. The link between teaching quality (the level to which teachers engage pupils) and pupil behaviour is particularly evident in the skill with which the teacher uses the work to keep pupils engaged (HoCEE, 2011).

Staff at each school recognised that if a teacher is having behavioural management issues and control issues it would be very demoralising for the member of staff. It was believed that engaging students was the main way to avoid this disruption and prevent possible stress for teachers. Malone *et al* (1998) found that overwhelmingly one of the main causes of low teacher morale was the continuance of disruptive behaviour within their classroom. One teacher said

*“I think behaviour is one of the main things that causes teacher burnout” (S1, I7).*

Whilst another said

*“I can’t understand how somebody can teach without control... I couldn’t do that it would be too stressful for me, I couldn’t think of getting up in the morning having to fight through the day to teach, that would affect me” (S1, I6).*

In *School One*, the need to engage pupils fully in the lesson to manage behaviour throughout the lesson was a recurring theme during the observations. Teachers consistently and enthusiastically attempted to engage the pupils in the work regardless of how the lesson was planned. In some lessons this involved more interactive work such as using the iPads and in other classes teachers continually checked that the pupils understood the work and exactly what they were meant to be doing. In every class teachers spent a considerable amount of time moving around the room ensuring that particular pupils understood what they were meant to be doing and providing individual support to those who needed. There was also an emphasis on the pupils supporting each other with their work, group work was commonplace across the lessons as was pupils marking each other on various tasks and smaller pieces of work. This created a learning environment where pupils took some responsibility for theirs and others learning and further engaged them in the subject material. The use of active engaging lessons in trying to create a restorative ethos is known to be

particularly enjoyable for pupils and encourages them to work (Kokotsaki, 2013). In *School One*, the school provide a mentoring support for new teachers so that if they are having behavioural issues they can be paired up with someone who can mentor them through the issues. Going into a culture where new teachers are supported and mentored, and relationships are important will make it more likely that new staff become a part of this culture and ensure its continuance.

Kokotsaki (2013) found that in schools where RA had been successful collaborative learning was embedded in the school, and pupils helping each other learn helped develop relationships between pupils which was apparent throughout the school. The notions of pupils taking responsibility for various aspects of their school life is a central restorative tenet although this often occurs when a whole-school approach has taken time to successfully change the school culture. Kokotsaki (2013) found that in schools where RA had been fully implemented there was a commitment to an approach that promoted interdependence and interaction and collective problem solving. It is also believed that in schools that have moved away from a more traditional authoritarian approach that teachers feel as though their role has moved to more of that of facilitator and co-learner (Kokotsaki, 2013). The encouragement and engagement of pupils may just be seen as a necessary way for teachers to help the pupils learn and keep control of a classroom, rather than an intentional use of restorative approaches. *School One* seemed to promote the use of relationship building and engagement as means of behaviour management, which is in keeping with a more restorative approach. As seen throughout the observations, focus groups and interview certain parts of RA may be being used simply because the teachers see them as best practice, though a restorative philosophy does not seem to have fully infiltrated either of the schools yet. However, *School One* does seem to have created a somewhat relational, engaged pedagogy that is an important part of RA (Vaandering and Morrison, 2009).

In *School Two* there were various observation codes that fitted under the general theme of engagement, these were: expectations, enthusiasm, independence and responsibility. One of the codes that fitted particularly well under this theme was the inconsistency of engagement between different subjects. There was a clear difference between subjects like art and physical education, and subjects such as maths and english. This could be due to the engagement factor being different in these types of subjects. In the subjects such as Art and Physical education, the pupils were being asked to do activities where they were moving around and taking more responsibility for their work. In particular in classrooms where pupils were mainly engaged and therefore less disruptive, it was clear that teachers were voicing their expectations of the pupils on a continual basis throughout the lesson. This appeared to keep the pupils engaged in the task and reiterated to the pupils what was

expected of them. Another code that fitted under the engagement theme was that of enthusiasm. Teachers consistently showed enthusiasm towards their subject and towards their pupils throughout the observations. This enthusiasm helped to ‘sell the subject’ to the pupils who in turn reacted with engagement and excitement about the work.

In each school, engagement was one of the main codes that recurred with regards to classroom management and maintaining order in the classroom. One member of staff in *School Two* said

*“I think that’s why I’m so tired at the end of the day, because you have to sell your subject to them [the pupils] constantly” (S2, I2).*

Two recurring codes for *School Two* the fitted underneath this theme were that of pupil independence and pupil responsibility. In classrooms where pupils appeared to be fully engaged, the teacher would tend toward giving the pupils responsibility over their own learning to a certain extent, and choices about what they want to do. Again, the aspect of choice lends itself towards subjects like Art and Physical education where the curriculum is not as intensive as the core subjects and creativity is part of the subject. By allowing the pupils space to independently take responsibility for their own work the teachers fully engaged the pupils in the task and therefore reduced disruption. This ties in with the restorative tenets of responsibility and accountability. In these classrooms, although there was still noise the pupils appeared focused on the work. This is potentially due to the element of responsibility they feel to their own individual task and the knowledge that the outcome of the work is based on their individual input. Giving pupils a responsibility over their own learning is an aspect of a restorative climate for learning, where pupils are accountable for their own successes and failures (Skinns *et al*, 2009). Overall, the expectations and enthusiasm that the teachers conveyed in their classroom contributed to positive classroom climates (though not necessarily restorative climates) throughout the observed lessons. Allowing the pupils a greater responsibility over theirs and others learning helps to contribute to a supportive school community and shows the value placed on each participant (Skinns *et al*, 2009). The idea of empowerment is an important part of a restorative philosophy and creating an environment where pupils feel empowered to take responsibility and be a part of their learning could foster an empowered culture in the school (Hopkins, 2006). The active involvement of everyone in the school with decisions about their own learning is seen as an underpinning principle of RA (Lloyd *et al*, 2007). Kokotsaki (2013) found that a restorative approach to pedagogy helped enhance participation and engagement throughout the school due to enhanced relationships, and supported

meta-cognition. It was found that a RA pedagogy contributed to an improvement in the school ethos and an improved climate for learning.

### *Pupils as disrespectful of authority*

At the core of this theme, which was specific to *School One*, members of staff in *School One* felt that pupils had less respect for authority than they used to and therefore different ways of dealing with issues had to be developed. This coincides with the increased understanding in *School One* that in order to effectively manage behaviour there needs to be respectful relationship that provide the basis for pupil engagement within the school. This could be analysed as pupils having less respect for more traditional forms of authority, as a number of teachers referred back to when they started teaching or even their own schooling. A few members of staff discussed that when they started teaching they were told

*“not to smile at the pupils”* (S1, I1)

and that

*“intimidation was a means of keeping authority in the classroom”* (S1, I6).

One member of staff voiced it that

*“society has changed and I don’t think kids today are easily intimidated by authority. I think they have a lack of respect for authority”* (S1, I6).

Teachers voiced that there was an expectation that pupils were treated differently in comparison to how they were treated in the past, and building relationships was part of this. It was discussed how it was not enough to simply be the authority figure in the classroom anymore, but teachers needed to go beyond this in order to provide more pastoral care, but also to manage behaviour more effectively. Pomeroy (1999) found that the ability of a teacher to foster and maintain positive relationships is one of the most important factors to pupils, and again this is important in a ‘relational ecology’ (Vaandering and Morrison, 2009). There is the potential in *School One* then that teachers were already altering the type of authority they used with pupils and moving to a more relational approach, as they felt traditional techniques were not working anymore.

### *The need for consequences to behaviour*

At the core of this theme were a number of codes throughout *School Two* interviews relating to the need for there to be consequences for the behaviour of pupils, often referring to punishment as a suitable consequence. This preoccupation with the idea of consequences in *School Two* is indicative of a general trust in the fact that punishment acts as a deterrent to pupils, or at least means that something is being done about misbehaviour in the classroom. McCluskey *et al* (2011) found a similar trust in the use of punishment, as without it teachers felt as though their ‘power’ had been taken away. This ties in with previous ideas of RA as the ‘soft’ option.

*“The most important thing I think, is seeing that something needs to be done. Other pupils and other members of staff feel happier knowing that something has been done about bad behaviour, and this can mean detention or punishment in some way” (S2, I4)*

Throughout each school, teachers voiced the opinion that they felt pupils preferred to have boundaries. This shows recognition on the part of the staff that pupils prefer consistency in teachers’ approaches towards them, even if the teacher is stricter. One member of staff said

*“some kids like boundaries... most children like classes where no one is messing around... you have some of our stricter staff... they know they won’t mess around in that class and it almost takes the pressure off them” (S2, I1).*

Teachers also discussed that they believed pupils wanted to see consequences to other pupils misbehaving and that as long as there were boundaries and consequences they do not mind if a teacher is strict. The focus group data suggests that pupils in *School Two* wanted more consistency from teachers, however also wanted a pupil to be dealt with if they were interrupting the class. There was some discord between wanting individuals to be dealt with quickly to minimise disruption, but also believing that if teachers address the cause of the behaviour it is unlikely to happen again.

### *Traditional punishment and lines of questioning*

In numerous *School Two* observations in classrooms, when pupils questioned teachers on why they were doing a certain piece of work or something similar a lot of replies were limited to “because I said so” or “don’t question me”. Whilst phrases like this probably save the teachers time whilst trying to attend to everyone in the classroom, they also do not provide a restorative basis. Whilst teachers are still the main source of authority in a restorative classroom, Wachtel (2000) argues the importance of the teacher using an authoritative not authoritarian to work ‘with’ the pupils. By

using phrases such as “because I said so” this takes away the working ‘with’ aspect of the interaction and creates a doing ‘to’ interaction, this makes away the restorative element working collaboratively with pupils and positive interactions designed to nurture relationships (Wachtel, 2000). The “because I said so” approach does not provide the dialogue and negotiation that a restorative approach would. The authoritarian approach involves high limit-setting and use of discipline, with low nurture of the pupils (Wachtel, 2000).

A number of teachers, particularly those in *School Two* who were observed still used or threatened to use more traditional forms of punishment, rather than a restorative approach. This included things like sending individuals out of the classroom, talking to their head of year, having the pupil come back at lunchtime, detention and splitting the pupil up from their friends within the lesson. One teacher, for example, said

“if you’re going to eat in the lesson then you’ll find yourself back here at break time scraping tables” (O1, S2)

whilst another teacher said

“get on please, watch your language, if I see you do that one more time you’re out” (O7, S2).

This traditional use of punishment as a deterrent to misbehaviour is very in line with an authoritarian approach to classroom management (Hopkins, 2002).

Throughout the observations in *School Two* it was clear that in most of the school more restorative lines of questioning had not been adopted. When something happened in a classroom the questions that teachers were most likely to ask were “who did that?” and the problem was discussed in terms of who broke the rules. This notion of ‘rule-breaking’ and the ideas of blame and guilt are again in line with an authoritarian approach to classroom management where the focus is on who broke the rules and what should be done to them as a fitting punishment. When a more restorative approach to classroom management is adopted the focus is on the harm done to individuals when misbehaviour takes place, whose responsibility it is to right these harms and dialogue and negotiation (Hopkins, 2002). In using a restorative approach, accountability is equal to putting things right whereas in a more authoritarian approach accountability is equal to being punished. In *School Two*, behaviour

management was characterised mainly by the importance of consequences to pupils actions, regardless of what those consequences might be. One member of staff said

*“I think the main thing is that they need to know the consequence to the action. There has to be a consequence, it doesn’t matter what it is but there has to be something” (S2, I2),*

whilst another said

*“fear of consequences [works]... even without RA they have to know the consequences of behaving well or behaving badly you know it makes sense to them then, if they think there will never be a consequence as opposed to a punishment at the end of behaving badly I don’t think they’d behave” (S2, I1).*

There is some interesting discussion to be had here regarding observations of more traditional punitive language and the necessity of punishment in each school. Whilst the necessity of punishment was a theme developed from each school, this does not necessarily translate into both schools being punitive in their observed language and behaviour. A number of restorative skills and restorative lines of questioning were observed in *School One*, and although they still expressed the need for punishment to be there, they seem to have generally moved away from using this more traditionally punitive language as much as *School Two* used it. The perceived need for punishment as a consequence to misbehaviour is seen as something that is central to the idea of schooling. However, in *School One* teachers did voice that they felt as though pupils didn't respond to traditional authority so much and teachers needed different ways (engagement, active listening, relationship building) to manage behaviour and address the pastoral side of teaching. Whilst the perceived necessity of punishment may still be a part of the culture of *School One*, the observations and discussions of they dealt with difficult behaviour did not reflect this.

#### *Concluding remarks for subquestion three*

Gradually a narrative can be seen developing from the data. Neither school is particularly extreme in its views, however *School One* seems to be more comfortable implementing and using RA. Whilst both schools saw engagements as an important way of maintaining authority in classrooms, it seems that the positive interpersonal relationships in *School One* led to a more authoritative, rather than authoritarian means that seem to be more apparent. Combining subquestions one, two, and three show that punishment and the need for punishment and consequences is highly apparent throughout *School Two*, but without the focus on relationships seen in *School One*. This could

potentially highlight the fact that the existing school culture in *School Two* was not conducive to the implementation of RA as *School One* was.

*Q4. How did the training and involvement of outside agency affect the implementation of restorative approaches?*

#### *Restorative approaches training*

Tests were carried out to find out if those who had received restorative training scored higher on the RJI than those who had not. Whilst it could be assume that those who had training would score higher on the RJI, if 'being restorative' is more based on teachers individual characteristics and preferences for dealing with misbehaviour and disruption then training may have no significant impact on an individuals score. To check for statistically significant differences in RJI in those who had or had not been trained, an independent samples T-test was employed. This was employed for each school separately and across both schools. Across both schools there were no statistically significant differences in RJI scores and whether they were trained ( $t(54) = 0.316$ ,  $p = 0.753$ ). Across both schools there were no statistically significant differences between PCI and whether they had been trained ( $t(53) = -0.434$ ,  $p = 0.666$ ). To check for statistically significant differences in RJI in those who had or had not been trained, an independent samples T-test was employed. In *School One*, there were no statistically significant differences in RJI scores and whether they were trained ( $t(23) = -0.895$ ,  $p = 0.380$ ). In *School One*, there were no statistically significant differences PCI scores and whether they had been trained ( $t(23) = -0.824$ ,  $p = 0.419$ ). To check for statistically significant differences in RJI in those who had or had not been trained, an independent samples T-test was employed. In *School Two*, there were no statistically significant differences in RJI scores and whether they were trained ( $t(29) = 1.458$ ,  $p = 0.156$ ). In *School Two*, there were no statistically significant differences in PCI and whether they had been trained ( $t(28) = 0.128$ ,  $p = 0.899$ ).

By reviewing the training that the school staff received and the personal views of the restorative officers who were implementing RA it allows some insight into the perceptions of those behind the implementations.



Restorative officer one felt that

*“Restorative approaches are a fair non-judgemental holistic approach that focus on repairing the harm done to relationships, rather than dispensing punishment. They are a journey - not a quick fix” (RAO1).*

Restorative officer two defined RA as

*“a set of practices which are based on the principles of restorative justice. Restorative approaches seeks to build and maintain a sense of community and relationship, whilst still being flexible to reactive practices to conflict”.*

Restorative officer one was responsible for both training of staff, raising awareness, and utilising RA in the school. At the point of this research, restorative officer two had not yet decided to give any training. The restorative officer wanted to become more familiar with use of RA before training others, however they were utilising them when incidents occurred in the school. Restorative officer one defined the central restorative skills as

*“honest dialogue, empathetic listening and non-judgemental attitude are integral restorative skills and equally life skills”.*

Restorative officer two stated that

*“I fundamentally believe the skills, knowledge, and values that restorative approaches promote: truth-telling, respect, repairing damage, accountability, responsibility, empathy, self-awareness, emotional literacy, listening to others are all facets needs to be a successful, well-developed and compassionate human being. There would be no value to RA as a means of resolving conflict and building relationships, if the notions and ideas it transmits were not applicable in other aspects of life” (RAO2).*

The restorative officers kept views of restorative justice that were in keeping with the literature. However, this did not always translate well to the school staff. In *School Two* particularly there was an understanding of RA as a ‘weak’ or ‘soft’ option, and this shows a fundamentally different view of RA to the literature. The majority of school staff has only received a short presentation based

training session, and it is possible that this was insufficient to fully explain RA to the staff in *School Two*. Whereas, staff in *School One* were already more familiar with the importance of developing positive interpersonal relationships and engaged pedagogies as a means of minimising disruption, in line with Morrison and Vaandering's (2009) work.

Hopkins (2002) found that there is a risk when introducing outside agencies into the schools as staff may feel that the skills of the external agent are too complicated for them to carry out. Kane *et al* (2006) found that help from outside agencies could be a real strength in some schools. In *School Two* particularly, the impression from staff members who watched the presentation by the restorative were given the impression that the restorative officer would carry out conferences and that there was no need for them to try and embrace a restorative philosophy. In *School Two*, the head teacher was not involved with any of the current research. The restorative justice officers also felt that no other restorative practices were happening in the school when they were not there, whereas in *School One* there was a peer-mentoring scheme and more enthusiasm towards the use of RA.

In *School Two* it was particularly felt that the placement of a 'restorative officer' in the schools was vital to the sustained use of restorative approaches. This shows how strained the teachers are feeling with constraints on their time and budget. Whilst the use of a restorative officer has been successful in some cases in the schools, it takes the responsibility of implementing and sustaining RA away from the staff somewhat which could in turn make it harder for RA to become properly entrenched in the school. The first RA officer was particularly concerned that RA was seen as something that the officer would carry out and showed concern that if the funding ran out RA would no longer be used in the schools.

#### *Concluding remarks for subquestion four*

Building on the previous subquestions, subquestion four provides further differentiation between the schools, particularly with regards to how the restorative officer was seen within that school. Whilst neither school have integrated RA fully into their school, it seems the use of an outside agency in *School Two* has meant that it has become their job to implement RA and not the teachers. Whilst resources remained a theme under *subquestion two*, it is essential to mention here that in some part the restorative officers were responsible for RA within each school, however there needed to be motivation and time in order for RA to even be considered as a viable approach.

*Q5. How did the pupils recognise the implementation of restorative approaches?*

The main theme that comes under this subquestion is the understanding the pupils have of restorative approaches. However, the researcher also chose to put themes relating to pupils preferred means of behaviour management and traits which pupils found they liked in teachers. These were included under this subquestion as they give some idea to pupils reactions to certain types of behaviour management and to certain teacher characteristics. This will help provide a critical understanding for the discussion of how pupils view the implementation of RA, whether it was something they were acutely aware of, and what type of behaviour management techniques they find to be fair and effective.

*Pupils understanding of restorative approaches*

Central to this theme were the number of pupils who mentioned restorative approaches in each school, and showed an awareness that it was a new initiative within the school. In *School One* there were a number of pupils in each of the groups who had heard of restorative approaches. Pupils thought that RA were when

*“you and another fall out and a member of staff listens and comes to a compromise with both students” (S1G4)*

and

*“it is where someone talks to you and sorts out your problems” (S1G2).*

The pupils did show a knowledge of the basic tenets of restorative approaches, and this could show promise that RA are being implemented well in the school on a broader level. In keeping with this is Lloyd *et al* (2007) who found that as RA became more entrenched within the school culture the pupils became more familiar with the language and underpinning philosophies.

In *School Two* only three pupils of those who had participated in the focus groups had heard of restorative approaches. One of the pupils said it was when

*“the pupil who has misbehaved, their parents and the head of year gather and the pupil has to confess about what they did in from of their head of year and their parents” (S2G3).*

Interestingly, one of the pupils described RA as

*“basically guilt-tripping” (S2G4).*

This was mirrored in a few of the pupils thoughts about restorative approaches. They had the idea that RA was just another way of getting pupils to admit what they have done so they can be punished appropriately. On some levels this ties in with Braithwaite’s ideas on reintegrative shaming. However “guilt-tripping” does not integrate the idea of reintroducing the pupil back into the school and has notions of RA just being a means to gain a confession. In *School One* the research found more of what one would expect to see in a large scale implementation of restorative approaches, that being a recognition of restorative language and the importance of relationships to pupils and teachers (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005).

#### *Desirable teacher traits*

At the core of this theme were codes that signified what pupils saw as valuable traits in teachers. In *School One* the pupils spoke positively of teachers who they feel they can go and talk to. If a teacher genuinely listened to their problems and shows them respect they respond very favourably to this, even if the teacher was stricter with them than other teachers. Respectful relationships were very important to pupils. One pupils said their favourite teacher always

*“listens to the pupil, respect the pupil” (S1G3).*

This mirrors ideas of ‘active listening’, one of the basic restorative skills (Hopkins, 2003). Most pupils referred to teachers that they felt they could go and talk to and had a good relationship with. Pupils felt they benefited from knowing that there was someone available to them that they trusted and who valued what they had to say. Pupils felt that teachers should be able to find out the problems behind a pupil’s behaviour in order to deal with the misbehaviour, but that this should be done at a time when it does not disrupt the rest of the classroom. They preferred it when teachers remained calm and dealt with issues, rather than shouting.

In *School Two*, some teachers are seen as overly strict and punitive. Pupils feel that the teachers’ position in the classroom makes them overly authoritarian and that they apply this inconsistently across different classrooms. Teachers shouting at pupils was mentioned a lot, and this was seen as unhelpful in most cases. Teachers were often described as ‘irritable and emotional’. The further reinforces the idea of two different cultures becoming apparent between the schools. There is a vast amount of research concerning the traits that pupils find desirable in their teachers. Pupils overwhelmingly find shouting as one of the most negative pupil-teacher interactions (Pomeroy,

1999; Rudduck *et al*, 1996). This is mirrored in the focus groups from current research, where pupils cite shouting as one of the most common ways teachers attempt to deal with disruption but also as mainly unhelpful. Kane *et al* (2007) also found that pupils favoured teachers who did not shout and actively listened to what the pupil was saying.

### *Proportional punishment*

In *School Two* there was a strong feeling from pupils that teachers should tailor the punishment to the particular student and their personalities and that this was not done enough. A few pupils made a point of saying things along the lines of

*“give them a punishment that fits the thing they’ve done”* (S2, G3)

and

*“sometimes they [teachers] pick really harsh punishments for things that don’t seem so bad, and sometimes it’s the other way round”* (S2, G4).

In general, the pupils felt that some pupils benefitted from open dialogue about problems they were having as misbehaviour was probably the symptoms of a deeper problem. In this case, pupils felt that an approach where talking to the pupil is central to dealing with reoccurring misbehaviour. They also felt that some pupils would not benefit from this at all and things like detention or Encil are the only measures that will deter these pupils from misbehaving. Previous research has also found that pupils perceive a lack of ‘strictness’ when it comes to dealing with classroom disruptions as problematic (Chaplain, 1996: Munn *et al*, 2000).

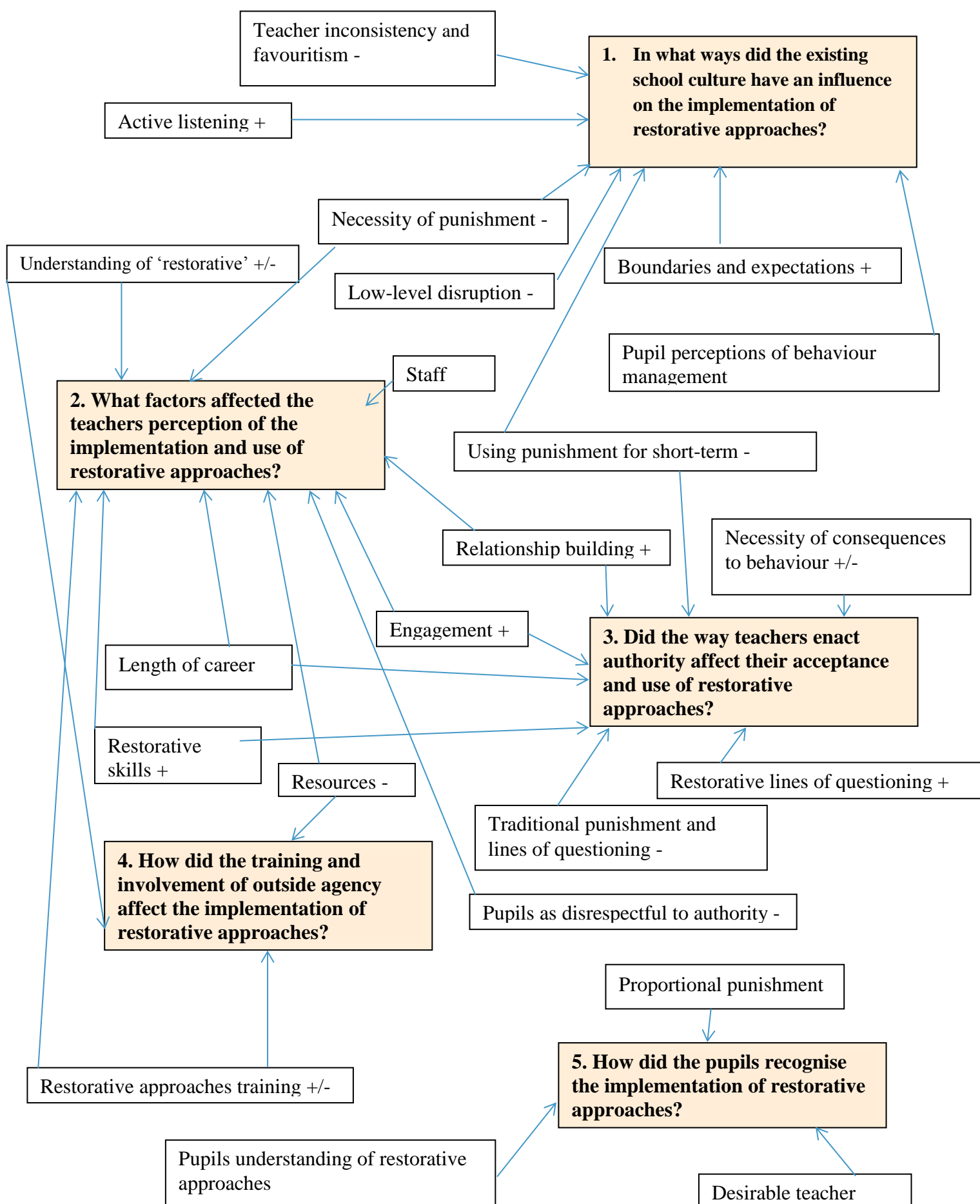
### *Concluding remarks subquestion five*

Interestingly although both schools had similar themes from pupil focus groups that helped distinguish the school culture, pupils in *School One* appeared happier with the way they were treated in the school than pupils in *School Two*. Again, whilst similar themes emerged from the teacher interviews and teaching observations, there were some differences that could begin to explain why pupils in *School One* were happier with the way they were treated in the school. When this is integrated with data from the other subquestions two very clear narratives of behaviour management and school cultures begin to emerge. Whilst neither is particularly extreme in their

culture, the differences are apparent enough that *School One* found RA a more acceptable means of behaviour management and already appeared to utilise some of the central restorative tenets. Whereas *School Two* seemed to have poorer pupil-teacher relationships. This meant that consequences to pupil behaviour, particularly in the form of punishment, were seen as vital.

Below is a figure created to provide an overall view of the research subquestions together. It provides insight into the complexity of the phenomenon and allows the research to show where themes may be relevant for more than one subquestion, and the very complex relationship of the myriad of factors that can affect implementation of RA within a school. Some of the themes have +/- next to them, this is to signify where a certain factor can enable or constrain implementation and use of RA. Interestingly, some factors can be both an enabler and constrainer depending on the context and culture of the organisation being discussed. Some themes do not have +/- next to them as they are not necessarily enabling or constraining factors, rather parts of the school culture that provide important context for the research.

This figure (figure 8) shows the complexity of the phenomenon and the relationships between the sub-questions and themes:



### 5.3 Summary

To conclude this section, it is necessary to go back to the initial intention of the concurrent mixed methods research design and to provide *triangulation* and *complementarity* of the data. *Triangulation* implies that the separate strands of results are compared, whilst *complementarity* means that results from one analysis type are interpreted to enhance, expand, and compliment findings from another strand (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). For the most part, this chapter has achieved *complementarity* through its analysis. The different forms of data overlapped and created a larger view the different factors that have affected the implementation and acceptance of restorative approaches. The thematic analyses of interviews, focus groups and observations combined to create a view of two schools that had some similar aspects, however *School One* had various different characteristics that meant RA were more easily understood and accepted (even though they were not always used). The analyses suggested that *School One* possessed a culture that was more focused on relationships to begin with. The importance of relationships was revealed in *School One* from three different data sources, and potentially means that the schools operates under a more relational ecology than *School Two*. Whilst *School One* had some of the positive restorative factors such as active listening and engagement, they lacked the focus on positive interpersonal relationships that could potentially provide a better understanding of RA for the staff.

Overall, the restorative officers found issues in each school with the implementation of restorative approaches. It is important to note however that the restorative officers, as mentioned, were not often situated in the school. It was felt that neither school had employed RA effectively; however *School One* did show some positive attributes. The restorative officer recognised that the school sought to utilise RA in any instances of conflict between pupils. They also sought to develop a peer-mentoring scheme that allowed the pupils to use RA as a self-governing tool. Although this was initially unsuccessful, the school have reviewed this and used the experience to inform the new approach being used that is yet to have been assessed by the staff or officers. The restorative officers both felt that in *School Two*, the identified restorative ‘champions’ were the main drive behind RA. Quantitatively, there were very little differences between the schools. The schools remained similar across a variety of variables. There was one significant result that will be discussed further in the discussions section. The strong relationship between the RJI and PCI for *School Two* means that the higher someone scored on the restorativeness scale, the more humanistic and less custodial they were. From the literature reviewed in Chapters Two and Three, this result was to be expected to a certain degree and is of interest when looking at authority relationships within the school. Roland *et al* (2012) found that a humanistic result on the PCI an important characteristic of scoring higher on the RJI. Although there were no other significant results, the



small number of questionnaires may have some influence on this. Using the PCI and RJI scale in future larger scale research projects may yield different, more significant results.

The findings chapter has through descriptive analysis, thematic analysis, and quantitative analysis portrayed the implementation of RA in the two case-study sites. Chapter Five used the large amount of qualitative data collected from the schools to create a series of themes from staff and pupils that begin to interpret how they understood and utilised RA in their respective schools. The quantitative data collected has then been used to stand alongside the thematic analysis. The findings chapter has been a useful endeavour in allowing the issues with implementation in each school evolve organically over the course of the thematic analysis. The findings chapter also began to look at the research surrounding other RA initiatives in schools. Key elements that will be explored at length in the discussion have been identified, alongside the more in-depth theoretical discussions that were had in literature review Chapters One, Two and Three and helped to develop the research questions. The discussion moves on to situate the results in the wider body of literature and provide exploration of the issues that were set up in the literature reviews.

## **Chapter Six: Discussion**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The current research was designed to obtain an increased understanding of how RA was implemented, understood and accepted in schools. The research followed the implementation by the Youth Justice Service of RA in two secondary schools that served as case study sites. A pragmatic, mixed methods research design was chosen that would provide an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon of implementation in context. Prior to this chapter, the combined qualitative and quantitative findings provided a number of themes that emerged from the data and quantitative results that sought to cross-reference with these. These results will now be used to answer the research questions. Using the analysis from the analysis chapter, this discussion situates the current research within the wider body of literature addressed in Chapters One, Two and Three. The discussion chapter provides an insight into problematic areas of implementation, where implementation works successfully, and what factors have an effect on this. The overarching research question of the thesis is:

**What are the individual, cultural and structural factors that affect the implementation of restorative approaches in schools?**

Similar to the findings chapter, the discussion will be structured around answering the research sub-questions with an aim to this way, answer the overarching research question. The sub-questions are:

1. In what ways did the existing school culture have an influence on the implementation of restorative approaches?
2. What factors affected teachers perception of the implementation and use restorative approaches?
3. Did the way teachers enact authority affect their acceptance and use of restorative approaches?
4. How did the training and involvement of outside agency affect the implementation of restorative approaches?
5. How did the pupils recognise the implementation of restorative approaches?

In schools, the importance of some element of good order cannot be denied. In order to create a

climate that promotes learning, there needs to be an environment where it is possible for pupils to engage with the work and the teacher. Improving behaviour in schools has been a priority for councils, the government and OFSTED for a number of years (Hallam, 2009). Schools are important organisations in creating healthy, pro-social individuals who will participate meaningfully in civil society. The development of social capital in schools as a means of increasing our capability to build and maintain a civil society is a prevalent theme in social theory (Morrison *et al*, 2005). Social capital is described as “... *the social glue, the weft and warp of the social fabric which comprises the myriad of interactions that make up our public and private lives*” (Cox, 1995, p. 18) or simply the connection amongst individuals that bind us (Putnam, 2001). Therefore, behaviour in schools and how it should be best dealt with is a societal concern with many stakeholders, including the community, school staff, parents, and pupils. Schools are under considerable pressure to create environments where pupils can develop social and academic skills whilst being inclusive and sensitive to numerous individual backgrounds and cultural needs (Husu and Tirri, 2007). To this goal, there are a number of different behavioural management programs and initiatives all designed to make schools safer, calmer, and provide a better climate for learning. These behavioural management initiatives, programs and tools take a myriad of forms. Marzano (2003) carried out a meta-analysis of over 100 studies that researched different behavioural management initiatives and found that they broadly split into four groups: rules and procedures; teacher-pupil relationships; disciplinary interventions; and, mental set (for example, controlling responses and developing awareness). Schools will regularly be introduced to new behaviour management techniques and skills throughout their career, and it needs to be considered why RA should be seen as any different.

RA offer an alternative way of thinking about punishment and discipline in schools by: focusing on relationships and repairing them when harm arises; avoiding seeking blame or retribution; taking responsibility for one's own actions; and, finding a constructive, acceptable solution to problems that benefit everyone. RA has become an increasingly popular way of managing pupil behaviour and the school climate. Skinns (2009) argues that this increasing popularity has taken place in an increasingly punitive societal context; which could potentially lead to issues and confusion surrounding the best way to effectively manage a classroom for school staff, pupils, and the school community. The answer to this partly rests on what the purpose of education and discipline is believed to be within a school. In different schools and across individuals the believed purpose of education could range from strictly educating pupils based on the curriculum, to as Morrison and Vaandering state “*one that moves away from education as*

*training to one that is much closer to the Latin root of education - educere (to lead out)”* (2012; p. 151). The idea that schools are educating pupils into society and how to be citizens, not just academically, is at the root of this. Each teacher will develop their own ideas surrounding the purpose of education and they will be based on a myriad of factors.

The current research sought to create a better understanding of the complex and varying factors that affected the implementation of RA in two secondary schools in Wales. In order to do this, a dual-site, mixed method, case-study research design was created and implemented over the course of the research. The research design used a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods to try and gain an in-depth view into the phenomenon, and also to provide an alternative view of the phenomenon to existing research in the field. Other research that has been carried out looking at RA in schools has tended to focus on outcomes for pupils and staff. This is a vital part of evaluating any programme implementation, to ensure that the program is beneficial to those involved. Various pilot studies and larger-scale evaluations (e.g. Skinns *et al*, 2009; Bitel, 2004; McCluskey *et al*, 2007) have been carried out investigating the use of RA in schools, and alongside the so called ‘behavioural boom’ the use of initiatives and ideas like RA have become increasingly popular in primary and secondary schools throughout the United Kingdom. Throughout the evaluations it can often be seen that there is a certain amount of resistance to RA often from teaching staff, and RA eventually loses momentum within the school (Cameron, 2011). The current research project differs from other research as it provides a more in-depth study of two schools, rather than a larger, more general approach across a higher number of schools.

After considering the existing research and literature looking at RA in education, a question that addresses cultural, structural and individual (‘the school ecology’) factors that affect implementation was designed. It was decided that these facets were important to address as research suggests that individual, structural and cultural factors all have an effect on the efficacy of school behaviour policies. The literature review highlighted these issues as the main factors that can either facilitate or hinder the implementation of restorative approaches, or any kind of reform into secondary schools. The discussion will observe where *School One* and *School Two* differed, but also where they showed similarities in their understanding of RA being implemented in their schools and gain a greater understanding of which barriers to RA are the most substantial. The combined data analysis and literature review chapters will then be used to answer the research questions. To answer these questions the schools will be discussed both

separately and combined as it is important to gain an understanding of the context of the two schools that RA were implemented into and how this may then lead onto differences in the understanding, acceptance and use of restorative approaches. There is the potential for some overlap between answers to the research questions, however the questions have been ordered in a way that ensures the overall research question is addressed. The research findings will then be looked at alongside Blood and Thorsborne's (2006) ten factors that have an effect on the implementation of restorative approaches, to ascertain whether the current research findings are in keeping with the wider literature.

## 6.2

### ***1. In what ways did the existing school culture have an influence on the implementation of RA in schools?***

To answer this subquestion, themes relating to the school culture and behaviour management philosophies of the school staff will be identified and discussed alongside the school culture and RA literature. In *School One* the predominant themes from the interviews and observations indicated that engagement, relationship building, boundary setting and expectations were fundamental parts of the behaviour management philosophies in the school. Teachers overwhelmingly stated that building relationships was essential for maintaining order in the schools and classrooms. This philosophy was mirrored in the observations where respectful, positive and friendly interactions were consistently witnessed between staff and pupils. Engagement was quoted by teachers as essential for maintaining order in classrooms, as if pupils were not engaged with the work they were doing then they would possibly cause disruption in the classroom, or at the very least not gain as much as possible from the lesson. Throughout the observations, teachers were consistently witnessed creating and maintaining engagement throughout their lessons through a variety of means. Boundaries and expectations were clearly set for pupils throughout observations of teaching staff. This meant that the pupils were consistently made aware of the boundaries of the situation and what was expected of them. Another theme predominant in the interviews was the perceived necessity of punishment by the staff. There was a feeling that RA was not appropriate for all pupils due to the lack of empathy that some pupils exhibit. Another reason teachers felt punishment was still needed was time constraints and the ease with which someone can be taken out of a situation as punishment.

Pupils in *School One* felt that teachers mainly shouted or used detention when another pupil was misbehaving, however overall pupils felt the school was fair and democratic. They mentioned some inconsistency in the way teachers dealt with misbehaviour, however showed an understanding that may be down to different teachers having different personalities and styles of dealing with behavioural problems. An understanding shown by pupils of teachers having differing personalities and styles is indicative of healthy relationships between pupils and staff. For a restorative approach, harm is viewed as a violation against people and relationships and not just breaking the school rules and any behavioural intervention should involve making sure that relationships are healed and a sense of community is instilled (Cameron and Thorsborne, 1999). Hopkins (2007) commented on the importance of relationships in RA, one of the central facets is minimising harm to relationships and relationship building. Bitel (2005) believes that one of the main strengths of a restorative approach is the emphasis on relationships, and viewing an individual's behaviour in context, not just as a violation of a rule in a book. Advocates of RA strongly believe that RA can not only heal harm in relationships when it is caused, but produce a culture or climate that is conducive to developing healthy relationships by encouraging everyone in the community to consider their actions and the consequences of these, and create an environment based on mutual respect. The importance of relationships is seen throughout the analysis from *School One* and therefore this suggests it is of significance in the school,

It is however important to note that RA are not the only behavioural management strategy/tool/philosophy that promotes teacher-pupil relationships as highly important. Marzano (2003) carried out a meta-analysis of more than 100 studies to compare the effectiveness of different types of individual strategies by placing them into one of four groups: rules and procedures; teacher-pupil relationships; disciplinary interventions; and, mental set (etc. controlling responses and developing awareness). Marzano (2003) found that pupils-teacher relationships were the foundation for all other aspects of classroom management. Teachers who had high quality pupil-teacher relationships reported 31% less disruptive behaviours in their classrooms than teachers who felt there were other foundations to effective classroom management. High quality pupil-teacher relationships have been characterised in various ways by many researchers, however a common recognition is that it has a major effect on pupils' development and academic achievement (Hughes and Chen, 2011; Roorda *et al*; 2011; Spilt, Koomen, and Thijs, 2011). Healthy interpersonal relationships, regardless of the use of RA, are

also seen as one of the fundamental key characteristics of effective schools (Smith and Tomlinson, 1990; Levine and LezoHe, 1990). The benefits of high-quality relationships between staff and pupils was apparent throughout *School One* where pupils recognised the good relationships they felt they had with the teachers, and how this made them more comfortable in the school. Hughes and Chen (2011) found that good pupil-teacher relationships promoted a sense of belonging for pupils to the school. In this research, the teachers in *School One* emphasised the fact that relationships were very important but that does not mean friendship between staff and pupils. There was a belief that one of the most important factors for developing these healthy relationships with their pupils, which in turn helps with maintaining order, is creating a mutual respect between teachers and pupils. From the wider literature, this is in line with one of the important factors of creating and maintaining a restorative ethos in schools.

The increased focus on relationships in *School One* could have been acquired from many sources, however it appears to have made it more susceptible to RA in general. Recognition on behalf of the teacher's that RA entailed an important facet (relationships) that they already saw as a central part of school life may have encouraged them (or at least not deterred them) from being more open to the use of RA in the school. Although not even a majority of teachers in *School One* had received beyond a presentation on RA, there is an assumption then that the importance of relationships had already been acquired by the members of staff prior to training. There was a definite recognition of the importance of some of the main restorative tenets in *School One*, however this was not necessarily tied in with the use of RA and was mirrored amongst staff that had and had not had restorative training.

The culture in *School One* generally seemed to reflect a more restorative approach. It is possible that as *School One* found it easier to make use of RA as it possesses a school culture or philosophy that is generally more susceptible to change. This means that the introduction of RA in *School One* may not have offered such a fundamental shift in thinking and school culture (Skinns *et al*, 2009; Stokes and Shaw, 2005). In their prospectus, *School One* states that one of the most important qualities in the schools is the “*friendly and happy relationships which exist between pupils and their peers, and between pupils and staff*” (prospectus). This is clearly in line with restorative values with regards to relationships, however it is important to note that neither school has yet to write RA into their formal behavioural processes. The writing of RA into the school's documents, and using restorative processes as part of the school's official

reaction to incidents would be helpful for the sustained use of RA. Due to the focus on relationships in *School One*, it seemed that there was a combination of proactive and reactive approaches used in managing pupils' behaviour. The combination of proactive and reactive approaches, alongside the clear boundaries and expectations that were identified in *School One*, creates a healthy school climate where pupils are encouraged to act in pro-social manners (Thomas *et al*, 2011; Skiba and Paterson, 2003; Scott, 2003). It would appear in *School One* that the current ethos and attitudes towards behaviour management enabled RA to be accepted and understood more readily than in *School Two*. Although punishment still seems to be entrenched within the school, interestingly, the reasons behind this show a good understanding of RA and what they entail. Concern with pupils lacking empathetic skills needed in order to fully take part in a restorative process is a valid concern, as not all individuals will possess the necessary communication and emotional skills to take place in a successful restorative process (Daly, 2006; Kokotskai, 2013).

By looking at the reasons behind implementing RA, the research acquires a better idea of the culture in each school. In *School One* the restorative officer believed that RA was implemented as a means of conflict resolution, to hold pupils accountable for their actions, and to enable those involved to move forward in a positive manner. *School One* also implemented a peer mentoring scheme, that although was initially unsuccessful, has been altered using literature on peer-mentoring schemes. The peer mentoring scheme is aimed at empowering pupils to take accountability for issues that are caused in school. There were various reasons quoted by the restorative officers that created a barrier to using RA in the schools. The restricted flexibility of the restorative officer meant that they were only able to be situated in the school two days a week (Monday and Tuesday), with active cases then being held till the following week. Staff members were cautious because they are restricted in the amount of time that was available for them to engage with or conduct restorative approaches. It was felt that as the LEA had not supported, promoted or guided the staff with implementation and there were no expectations in place from them regarding implementation and that this slowed the process. Finally, the peer mentor scheme implemented in order to give the pupils some input with RA was not successful in the first year as they did not base the implementation on the literature.

In *School Two* pupils felt that teachers' main method of behaviour management were shouting, the use of detention or sending pupils out. Often pupils felt that behaviour that disrupted them went ignored and was not dealt with. Pupils overwhelmingly felt that the school was unfair and



there was a lack of respect from staff for pupils. It was thought that the way behaviour management was dealt with stopped the short term issues but did not handle the long term issues behind disruptive behaviour. One of the central underpinnings of a restorative school ethos is the fostering of positive relationships using trust, empathy and respect for all members of the community (Lloyd *et al*, 2006). Pupils in *School Two* did not feel that teachers respected them in this manner. Kokotsaki (2013) also found that before implementation feelings of injustice were rife among pupils. Pupils felt that teachers were overly strict and punitive, and often described them as 'irritable'. Teachers in the school perceived punishment in the school as a necessity. Punishment, to them, is seen as swift, fair, and provokes a reaction from pupils. The teachers in *School Two* felt that consequences to pupil behaviour were highly important and punishment is the ideal consequence as it acts as a deterrent to future misbehaviour. The observations in *School Two* revealed that teachers were more likely here to take on a traditional authority role, to threaten or use punishment, and to use more traditional authoritarian lines of questioning when misbehaviour occurred. Teachers in general felt they had a lack of resources and time to deal with misbehaviour and this was one of the main causes of stress amongst the staff. In each school, engagement was a big aspect in trying to maintain an orderly environment in the classroom. However, there was inconsistent engagement from pupils across different subjects. Low-level disruption was apparent in classrooms throughout *School Two*. These factors are all indicative of a less healthy school ecology and ethos, particularly one that is at odds with a relational ecology and therefore, the development of restorative approaches.

In *School Two* the restorative officer felt that RA was introduced mainly as a tool for pupils to see the impact of their challenging behaviours on teaching staff. The main emphasis of their approach was the disruption that challenging behaviour brings about to teaching staff, rather than a more holistic view to improving the school climate. Apart from the work of the restorative officer, it was felt that no other restorative work was being conducted by the school staff. This reasoning would suggest that it is intended to be more about control of pupils, rather than developing and maintaining a better school environment. Structural changes to staffing meant it was felt that there was very restricted availability of staff to who were able to engage with RA and staff had very limited time to become directly involved. Alongside this, a number of the staff held rather negative views of RA and believed that it was not capable of holding pupils accountable for their actions, and therefore is unsuitable for a school setting. Each schools reasoning behind the implementation of RA could potentially illuminate some issues with implementation, give some insight into the school culture, and highlight where RA

has been accepted or not. The second restorative officer believed the schools were implementing RA for differing reasons. For *School One*, the officer believed that RA were being implemented to use for conflict resolution, holding pupils accountable for their actions and enabling all involved to move on in a positive manner. The introduction of a peer-mentoring restorative scheme also meant that RA were being implemented in a way that meant pupils could feel empowered and take responsibility for some issues that arose, and also the school environment would benefit as a result of this. *School one's* reasoning for implementation shows a concern for the whole school community benefitting from the use of restorative approaches. For *School One*, the restorative officer thought they were implementing it in order for pupils to see the impact on their challenging behaviours on teaching staff. This emphasis on the pupils seeing the impact of their actions on staff suggests that RA is being implemented to use as a tool as and when it's needed, but not to infiltrate the school culture in any way. According to the literature, this lowers the chances of effective implementation of RA in schools. This is in general keeping with the rest of the findings regarding the difference between *School One* and *School Two*. The existing culture/ethos in *School One* allowed for an easier use of RA as it would appear the staff tended to view misbehaviour and behaviour management in terms of relationships and engaging the pupils with the curriculum, relationships, and generally in the classroom.

The literature suggests that when change is presented to schools, it will be well received if individuals in the school can see the benefits of that change and recognise that as an organisation they have the tools and expertise to manage the change (Cameron and Green, 2004). Similarly, Schein (1992) proposed that implementing approaches that build on the already existing value base of an organisation can increase motivation and reduce the anxiety that often accompanies change. This could account for the more restorative culture in *School One*. If *School One* already had an ethos and individual members of staff who used more restorative styles in their day to day teaching, it may have been easier for them to see the value of RA instantly, and therefore to be more susceptible to it. A reoccurring theme that is stressed within the literature is the fact that a whole-school approach must be used in order to maximised effectiveness of RA (Hopkins, 2004; Bitel, 2001; Hopkins and Tyrrell, 2001; McCluskey *et al*, 2008). Sherman and Strang (2008) posit that if RA are used on a limited basis then traditional disciplinary approaches tend to predominate (Sherman and Strang, 2007). It is believed that tensions between existing traditional punishment and RA creates tension in the implementation of RA in schools (Wilcox and Hoyle, 2004). Along these lines, McCluskey *et al* (2011) warn of the tendency in schools that are

attempting to use RA to resort back to a 'default' punishment when things are tough. Morton and Rideout (2010) also found that new teachers who enter a certain school culture are likely to adopt how custodial or humanistic that school is, adding weight to the idea that *School One* possessed a more relational ecology than *School Two*. Hoy (1967) found that beginning teachers were more likely to score more highly on the custodial scale, and then become more humanistic as they advance in their career. In agreement with this is a finding from this research surrounding teachers acceptance of RA and their length of career. Staff felt as time their careers had progressed they had become more comfortable with their role as teacher, and particularly the pastoral side. Often they felt the need to be overly strict and punitive at the beginning of their career, and then as time has progressed so has their attitudes towards pupils. Early career teachers have previously reported that they were being 'left to their own devices' more often than not when starting in a new school, without support or guidance or mentorship to help the development of their professional ability (HoCEE, 2011). Here, it can be seen why RA in schools may be helpful to new teachers as a restorative school climate based on mutual respect and healthy relationships would be a supportive atmosphere for not only pupils, but teachers at the beginning of their careers. Newcomers who are introduced into the school will take on aspects of this ethos and culture, and it is partly this that helps maintain a culture. In a similar way, this could work in *School Two*, but rather than a relational ecology, the more traditionally authoritarian and punitive ethos will be maintained. By continuing to utilise the same behaviour management methods within a school, the existing culture will be maintained and strengthened.

However, the more general, societal context in which RA is attempting to be implemented in needs to be considered carefully. With the government and OFSTED claiming that behavioural issues in schools are increasingly becoming worse, and that teachers need to reclaim their authority and control in classrooms (OFSTED, 2011) the introduction of a new approach such as RA is addressing individuals who are being told to become more authoritarian and more in control. If teachers are being told that their authority is being undermined (OFSTED, 2011), it may make them less inclined to change their beliefs about punishment and how schools should be. Rather than a whole-school approach, the introduction of restorative skills and values in schools may be a better option. Hoy (2001) argues that as teachers' statuses are grounded in the nature of the school and teaching, and changes to this and the way they have learnt to deal with different incidents threatens their status, they therefore turn to custodial means to gain control over the situation. It would appear then that change needs to be carefully planned out and implemented, and realistic and adjustable plans need to be carefully considered. *School One* and

*School Two* each stated that a whole-school approach would not be possible in their schools. However, *School One* do appear to be slowly using more restorative skills and possessing more restorative values within the school culture. The teachers in *School One* were comfortable in the knowledge that the school would back them up should they need to use more traditional types of punishment, such as detention, however often the relationships they had formed with pupils and the mutual respect formed meant that they did not have to resort to punishment. Cowie *et al.* (2003) believe that implementation of RA will not work if it is used and implemented alongside punitive measures, however implementing RA in a way that staff members feel comfortable with using is also important for sustainability. In *School Two*, RA was seldom used as staff did not feel it provided the proper consequences that pupils needed and for this reason RA seemed unlikely to become a part of the way the school dealt with difficult or challenging behaviour.

There exists a delicate balance that should be considered in every school as there is a need to implement RA in a way that addresses specific cultures and ecologies. The shift away from a more punitive mindset is a difficult shift, and often the emphasis still lies in reactive processes to wrongdoing (Cameron and Thorsborne, 2001; Blood and Thorsborne, 2006). In *School One* where the understanding of working in a relational context is more apparent than in *School Two*, there seems to be more positivity relating to restorative approaches. Skinns *et al.* (1999) found that even when RA was not implemented on whole-school level and was used alongside disciplinary measures, it still did appear to work well in the schools. There is an expectation here then that as RA continues to be used in the school and the staff continue to work relationally that there will be less of a need for reactive processes (restorative or punitive) to misbehaviour, as the growing restorative ethos will encourage responsible, pro-social behaviour from pupils. One of the strengths of using RA in education is the emphasis in schools on relationships, as much of school life is based on social interactions (McCluskey *et al.*, 2008). A focus on relationships can be seen clearly in *School One*. The focus on these relationships and the development of social skills in schools means that they are ideal environments to implement RA (Shaw, 2007), particularly with the relational ecology that *School One* appears to possess. However, Morrison and Vaandering (2012) found that although many teachers accept and understand the premise of the importance of relationships and the affect these can have on behavioural issues within schools, many still find it difficult and are reluctant to let go of their familiar punishments. This could be due to the societal context that punishment is a symbolic part of schooling and what teachers should be like (McCluskey *et al.*, 2011). Although implementation seems to have been more successful in *School One* it would seem that existing structures in the school undermine the full

restorative potential (Morrison and Vaandering, 2012).

In terms of the literature, both *School One* and *School Two* seemed quite aware and in agreement with regards to the importance of engagement. Yang (2009) argues that all classes for better or for worse foster some degree of youth (dis)engagement. This is presented as two interactive axis where engagement and structure interplay. Engagement is an interaction between the pupils engaging with the work but also the teachers engaging the pupils. Yang (2009) sees structure and engagement as the interactive bases of any classroom. Structure refers to the actions and activities that are expected of pupils, for example, tasks and tests. It is theorised that to some extent all teachers engage and structure the youth experience within their classroom. The link between teaching quality (the level to which teachers engage pupils) and pupil behaviour is particularly evident in the skill with which the teacher uses the work to keep pupils engaged (HoCEE, 2011). This implies that engagement is a very important part in creating and maintaining a pleasant and productive classroom environment that provides an ideal environment for learning and teachers in both schools seemed to recognise this. Engagement was discussed extensively in the second and third literature review chapters. An interesting comparison to draw between the two schools however, is that one of the main themes in *School Two* was the constant low-level disruption that was observed, even though the importance of engagement was recognised and teachers did attempt to engage pupils.

The relationships between pupils and teachers are seen as an integral part of understanding pupil engagement. If the quality and nature of these relationships is poor, then engagement is likely to be low (Pianta, Hamre, and Allen, 2012). Positive pupil-teacher relationships are indicative of greater motivation and engagement in pupils (Marsh, 2012). A potential reason for the higher levels of disruption in *School Two* could be this connection between healthy pupil-teacher relationships and engagement. In *School One* the recognition of the importance of engagement was also coupled with strong respectful relationships. Teachers recognised the importance of forming relationships in order to maintain good behaviour in classrooms, and pupils felt as though they were treated fairly, respectfully and democratically. The combination of these two aspects in *School One* led to a calm environment where disruption was less likely. If the pupils in *School One* are more engaged within a relational environment this could proactively lead to less disruptive behaviour. In *School Two*, whilst teachers recognised the importance of engagement in their teaching and for their pupils this was applied inconsistently across different disciplines and classrooms. Pupils in *School Two* felt that they were often treated disrespectfully

and unfairly and this lack of strong relationships may be why the disruption was apparent in *School Two*. This will be developed further under the next subquestion, in a discussion about creating relational pedagogies and school ecologies.

To conclude this subquestion, in *School One* amongst staff and pupils there was a definite recognition that respectful relationships between members of the school community were important in managing behaviour. Pupils were more inclined to behave and engage with staff when they felt they were respected and heard. Engagement of pupils was seen by staff as one of the main ways to ensure pupils behave well within the classroom. Whilst there was some inconsistency amongst teachers about how incidents and disruption were dealt with, pupils mainly put this down to individual differences. *School One* was similar in some ways to the relational ecology that has been discussed throughout this research. In *School Two* the prevailing philosophies regarding behaviour management were those of controlling pupils and consequences for pupils' difficult behaviour. Pupils felt as though staff shouted a lot, but didn't deal with the root cause of difficult behaviour. It was also felt that there was a lot of inconsistency between how teachers dealt with difficult behaviour, and this viewed as highly unfair amongst pupils. There was less of an emphasis on the importance of relationships for behaviour management in *School Two* and pupils felt that they did not have respectful relationships with the school staff. Again, engagement was viewed by staff as one of the most important factors in keeping pupils well behaved within the classroom, however this was not coupled with the same emphasis on relationships that *School One* possessed. Staff in *School Two* were adamant that there were consequences for pupils if they behaved in a difficult manner. There was a marked difference in accounts of behaviour management philosophies across each school.

### 6.3

#### ***2. What factors affected teachers' perception of the implementation and use of restorative approaches?***

There were a number of factors identified across both schools that seemed to influence how school staff accepted restorative approaches. In *School One*, evidence suggested that a number of the teachers thought that they were already working restoratively and that the school was already a restorative organisation. A significant barrier to implementation found in the literature is this idea that teachers already think they are working restoratively, and that the school is a restorative organisation (Skinns *et al*, 2009). The idea that staff were already carrying out RA could be used

by members of staff to resist change, and not partake in training or make use of restorative skills. Whilst this could act as a barrier to change, it could also be indicative of a relational ecology and a generally more restorative culture that has been identified in *School One* and discussed in Chapter 3. If teachers are used to talking about unacceptable behaviour in a way that makes clear that it affects relationships, then RA would seem more familiar to them and ultimately make more sense. A member of senior staff in *School One* said they were lucky to have a lot of ‘naturally’ restorative members of staff, and that you could hear more restorative questions and statements being used throughout the school. This statement was mirrored in the research throughout the observations that found the use of restorative language in *School One*. Among the restorative language observed was language that related to active listening, and how one individual’s behaviour affects another individual. *School One* could have a more relational ecology due to the characteristics of the staff that work there and the culture this creates.

Part of the challenge of implementing RA is recruiting staff who are amenable to RA and using it (Lloyd *et al.*, 2007). Organisational and school change literature investigates what happens to individuals when they are brought into a new culture and this could potentially shed some light on why *School One* was more susceptible to RA than *School Two*. Alongside the organisational culture literature, research suggests that individuals get socialised into a certain organisational culture and adhere to the values, traditions, beliefs and attitudes (Schein, 1992). If *School One* initially had staff who were more susceptible to RA and *School Two* had staff who were more naturally authoritarian, then newcomers into the organisation would be socialised into this and therefore continue the cultural behaviours in the school. The values and attitudes of staff in *School One* mostly conveyed the importance of forming relationships as a way of dealing with problems that may arise with pupils. These values and attitudes in *School One* will be solidified by continues reinforcement of them through the way the school functions. Similarly, in *School Two* where behaviour management seemed to be more typified by control and RA was seen as a ‘soft’ option these values and attitudes will be solidified by the continuance of these attitudes and values. Morrison *et al.* (2005) argue that “*challenging the hearts and minds of staff is the essence of culture change*” (p. 325) and this indicates a personal journey as much as a cultural change. It can be seen that having individuals who are more inclined to think of the school community in terms of relationships would be very helpful in the implementation of RA as it would help create a more restorative, relational ethos initially.

As Sergiovanni (2000) argued:

*“Changing a culture requires that people, both individual and collectively, move from sometime familiar and important into an empty space. And then, once they are in this empty space, they are obliged to build a new set of meaning and norms and a new cultural order to fill up the space”* (p. 148)

If *School One* possessed a relational ecology where engagement and relationships were viewed as essential and important for both academic and social development then this move into a new culture may not be as difficult. Due to the combination of cultural factors that already support the move into a new cultural space, but a group of staff who are understanding of the concept of restorativeness, and already think that this is the way pupils should be dealt with. Schein (1992) proposes that when implementing an approach that builds on the existing value-base, principles and practice of an organisation, change is more likely to be successful. The relative success of using more RA in *School One* is linked to a more compatible school ethos and potentially staff who are more naturally restorative in the way they deal with misbehaviour. If the change is seen as supportive of what the school already implements and utilises then this limits anxiety in the staff, and allows them to see that the organisation already has the tools and expertise to effectively manage the change (Cameron and Green, 2004; Schein, 1992).

An interesting comparison to draw across *School One* and *School Two* regarding the use of restorative approaches, behaviour management and punishment is that although both schools saw punishment as a necessary part of school life, their reasoning was very different. The different reasoning behind the necessity for punishment could effect how teachers perceive RA as it provides a reflection of behaviour management philosophies in the each school, but also the understanding of RA in each school. In *School One*, the notion that some pupils have not fully developed the capacity to be empathetic enough for a restorative approach was of real concern to the teachers as they believed this would hinder how RA worked. The concern with the need for a quick way of dealing with severe pupil misbehaviour in order to ensure that everyone remains safe was also a worry for *School One*. In *School Two*, teachers were worried that RA would not be of use to them as it was a ‘soft approach’ and allowed pupils to get away with things. Punishment was often seen as the only acceptable consequence for pupils when someone misbehaved in *School Two*. There was also a real concern about the effect of punishment as a



deterrent, and how pupils would behave if that was taken away. The difference in opinions regarding RA shows two very different cultures with varying behavioural management strategies in each school. It could go a way to explaining why, although *School One* had still not fully embraced RA, it was more apparent in the daily functioning of the school. It also shows an understanding of restorative principles in that a certain level of empathy and social and emotional skills are needed in order for RA to be appropriately used. Whilst *School One* may have taken on (or already consisted of) using more restorative approaches, *School Two* did not show any restorative tenets apart from active listening. Neither school wrote RA into their behaviour policies and this could mean structurally that neither of the schools are fully willing to accept RA as a permanent part of their behavioural policy. *School Two's* reluctance to put RA in their policies could provide reluctance on the part of staff to use restorative approaches, as to them it could just be another 'tool in the box'. One of the factors that will affect the success of an implementation are how well pre-existing measures in the school are compliant with RA or changed in order to be in line with a more restorative philosophy (Blood and Thorsborne, 2006). Lloyd *et al* (2007) found one of the major challenges faced by secondary schools was revisiting disciplinary policies to facilitate restorative approaches. Although RA was implemented the same, by the same RA officers in each school it is the existing ethos in the school that seems to have had an effect on how well RA has been understood and utilised. Research suggests that when schools have delivered RA in isolation without considering how and where they fit in the school, that restorative values fail to become a part of the larger school ethos and infiltrate how the school works (YJB, 2004; Blood, 2005; Kane *et al*, 2009).

Interestingly, even though *School One* appears to have utilised and taken on restorative values, or at least been more accepting of them, it was still decided that a whole-school restorative approach would not be used. A member of senior staff mentioned that whilst it was one of the mainstays in the school and they were pleased with the restorative processes, conversations and teaching happening in the school, teachers would not want their ability to punish pupils taken away. Whilst *School One* possessed a more relational ecology that considered a lot of what happening in the school in terms of relationships, it was still unwilling to let go of the use of punishment. Although if RA does continue to be used in *School One* as intended by school leadership then this could lead to further use and familiarity from school staff that cannot be rushed in an organisation. This may naturally lead further use of RA if staff can see the positive

changes that are happening. Considerable infrastructure has been developed in schools with regards to behaviour management and discipline issues, including dedicated staff and spaces. Each school has an exclusionary unit, named Encil, where pupils go when their behaviour means they have been removed from a classroom. The intention is to keep them in school and carrying on with their work, but not have them in classrooms where they have been too disruptive and caused distractions. Each school in England and Wales will have similar infrastructure that is specifically aimed at discipline and punishment issues. If infrastructure on a similar level is not created to engage with RA then this may make utilising a whole-school approach very difficult as punitive infrastructures will still be adapted and principles, values and attitudes may not change. As previously discussed, Schein (1992) referred to the existing value base, attitudes and principles shaping a school culture and by creating infrastructure that includes RA as part of the behaviour management strategy this could potentially provide a change in the principles and practices of the schools, eventually changing the values base and attitudes.

Sarason (1996) looked to power relationships in the school and how they ultimately shape the culture of a school. In schools where RA are a part of the school climate there is no sense of hierarchy, and this is important for implementing RA. Leadership within a school is therefore a vital factor of how well implementation works. However, there is a balance that needs to be considered. Senior staff need to be supportive of change whilst also ensuring that all staff voices are heard, whether they are supportive of or against RA (Rideout *et al*, 2010). Staff members need to feel empowered and supported to be able to make the changes necessary (Hopkins, 2007). As Fullan (1997) argued individuals in a school will not change simply because they are told to do so; change is more complex than this. Individuals need to be able to clearly see the merit and usefulness of change in order to be motivated to implement change. Staff members in *School One* showed considerable enthusiasm about RA and the potential ways it can improve pupils experience and the school community. Their understanding of RA conveys a sense of ownership over its use which can help with its sustained acceptance and use.

In *School One*, senior management and particularly the members of senior management responsible for behaviour issues and dealing with them in the school were very supportive of restorative approaches. Although there was still a belief that punishment was needed in some situations where a pupil needed to be instantly removed from a situation for their own or other

pupils safety, and that some individuals lacked the emotional and communication skills to take part in a restorative process meaningfully. The reluctance to 'let go' of punishment as a 'default setting' is seen by McCluskey *et al* (2011) as indicative of "*the pervasive and powerful idea*" that "*punishment is an essential symbol of power and teacher strength*" (p.112) There was the recognition in order to deal with larger issues in a way that was helpful and fair for all those involved and meant that individuals could learn from the experience, RA was particularly helpful. It was felt that RA gave the pupils ownership of how to deal with similar issues if they happen again. The member of senior staff stated that RA would be a mainstay in the school due to this and how onboard the head teacher was with this approach. Lunenburg (2005) argued that when organisations are implementing organisational change, 'change agents' are needed. Any change depends heavily on these 'change agents' who have the necessarily skills, knowledge and time to encourage change within an organisation. It appeared that *School One* had a higher number of change agents than *School Two*.

From the analysis in this research, it could be argued that whilst *School One* had a number of change agents, *School Two* were lacking these. Particularly due to some structural changes in *School Two* where proponents of RA found themselves with increased workload, and therefore less time to train in and implement restorative approaches. Throughout the literature, the nature of school leaderships and their support of any change initiative is an important factor of whether change will be successful (Raywid, 2001). The role that senior management has in ensuring that implementation is successful and sustainable cannot be underestimated. The Youth Justice Board (2004) found it to be one of the most important implementation factors, alongside Mahaffey and Newton (2008) who found that school leadership plays a fundamental role in planning and implementing RA successfully. In *School Two*, the same acceptance did not exist from senior staff members. One of the barriers to implementation identified by restorative officer two in *School Two* was that there was no member of senior management who took the lead on implementation and therefore it was not supported on a school wide level. There was concern about restructuring of staffing and how this took time for RA away from those who were fully trained. Hargreaves (1997) found one of the main reasons that educational reform tends to fail is that key cultural stakeholders are either over involved or uninvolved with the change process. This was evidenced throughout this research where senior staff in *School One* were more on board with the use of restorative approaches, than senior staff in *School Two*. The drive from leadership and senior staff in *School One* may be one of the reasons why it seems to have adopted a more restorative stance than *School Two*. Strong and directional leadership aimed at

implementation and school change is a clear factor in the uptake of any new initiative (Skinns *et al*, 2009).

To conclude, in both *School One* and *School Two* resources were a big concern amongst staff and the Youth Justice Service. Time available for teachers to be trained in restorative approaches, but also the lack of time they felt they had to actually use RA was a major concern. The use of the Youth Justice Restorative Officer to deliver RA training, but also facilitate restorative meetings was seen as helpful by both schools but also came with its own issues. The issues that arose were mainly due to the fact that RA was seen as the restorative officer's job, and particularly in *School Two* this meant staff were not as motivated to use restorative approaches. In *School Two* there was an understanding of RA that was not in line with the literature, this led staff and pupils to believe that RA meant 'getting away' with things and not being handled in the correct way (punished). This could be partly down to the way the training was given and received, but also the existing school culture. In *School One* whilst it was made clear that the current school disciplinary system would be kept, RA seemed to be more readily used by staff members and there was a greater understanding of the central restorative tenets. It seemed that the existing school philosophies with regards to behaviour management gave way to how comfortable school staff and pupils felt with the use of restorative approaches. In *School One* where the focus was on relationships and engagement RA seem to be more readily used than in *School Two* where the focus was more on consequences and what should be done when a pupil behaves in way that is seen as difficult. The importance of support from senior staff is apparent here, in *School One* senior staff were proactive in their pursuit of implementing RA. In *School Two* recent changes in school structure meant there were minimal resources available to senior staff and therefore RA was not as actively sought.

#### 6.4

### ***3. Did the way teachers enact authority affect their acceptance and use of restorative approaches?***

A major point of discussion that was set up throughout the literature review chapters Two and Three was how the school staff view the use of punishment, and how teachers should exercise authority over pupils. As part of the research design the Pupil Control Ideology Scale (PCI) (Hoy *et al*, 1967) was used alongside the RJ Ideology scale (RJI) (Rideout *et al*, 2012) in order to investigate whether there was any difference between the ideologies of *School One* and

*School Two*, or variances between the staff within those schools. One of the issues focused on in the literature reviews was the lack of theorisation surrounding how authority and RA interact within the schools.<sup>16</sup> To answer this subquestion, the discussion will look at how authority was enacted in the schools and how this may have affected the acceptance of restorative approaches. To begin with *School One* will be considered as this seems to be the school that has utilised and understood RA more substantially. The behaviour management culture in *School One* appeared to be typified by positive respectful relationships and fostering engagement within the pupils. In itself this is in keeping with a restorative ethos. The pupils in this school felt that the school was fair and democratic and that they had a voice in the schools.

In *School One* the authority styles of teachers may be closer to the pedagogical authority discussed in Chapter Three. Pedagogical authority arises from teaching interactions between staff and pupils, pupils respecting the teacher due to their perceived knowledge, and relationships formed based on this exchange of knowledge. Clark (1998) suggests that authority in classrooms and schools is very important, but needs to be enacted in a way that engages pupils with their active experiences in education. There was a recognition that using a more restorative approach enables pupils to deal with their own issues when they arise and empowers them to do so. In *School One* it was observed that authority was mainly present and seen in the relationships between teachers and pupils within the school community. The restorative officer mentioned the restorative peer-mentoring scheme in *School One*, that although initially unsuccessful, the school was attempting to try again and showed commitment to ensuring that pupils were empowered to use restorative approaches. This kind of activity is not only helpful for the pupils to take some ownership of RA in their school, but also provided an overall easier climate to implement restorative approaches.

In *School One* authority did not appear to be about punishment or control, rather about engaging and enabling pupils to make decisions about how they act, being aware of the expectations and boundaries placed upon them, and what happens if these are not met. Morrison and Vaandering (2011) argue that when RA focuses on building a relational ecology, the power dynamics are reversed and rather than relying on the 'hard' powers of the institution, the 'soft' power of relational ecologies afford the power of influence. A greater theorisation and understanding of RA and authority relationships in school might be helpful for future implementations of RA and

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<sup>16</sup> For further discussion on authority in schools, see page 60

understanding why some teachers feel they are losing their power when using restorative approaches. This research would suggest that when teachers enact authority from a more relationship based approach, they may feel less challenged by using RA as there is a recognition that they can still enact authority over a classroom, just using different (less authoritarian) means.

In *School Two*, punishment appeared to be deeply entrenched within how the school worked. There was a general trust in punishment providing the adequate consequences needed to deter pupil misbehaviour in the future. From the interview and observations analyses it was clear that teachers mainly tried to enact authority by controlling the classroom, but not through relationships, rather through them seeing their position in the classroom as a natural position of authority that meant they should be listened to and obeyed. There was an understanding amongst teachers in *School Two* of RA as not providing adequate consequences and as a 'soft' option for pupils. In *School Two*, this general understanding of RA not acting as a consequence provided a definite barrier to implementation as teachers were reluctant to use restorative approaches. The change in attitude needed to use RA and changing the 'default' of using punishment was seen as a difficult transition for teaching staff who had become accustomed to dealing with things in a certain way. Pupils in *School Two* were generally dissatisfied with the way that behavioural issues in the school were dealt with, felt teachers were overly punitive, and felt there was lack of respect for pupils by school staff.

In *School Two*, one of the significant results from the staff questionnaires was a strong negative relationship between the PCI and RJI scales, meaning that the higher someone scored on the custodial scale, the lower they would score on the restorative ideology scale. This is an interesting finding and brings about questions previously raised in the literature review about the nature of the relationship between authority and restorative approaches. The strong negative relationship between the two scales means that there is a relationship between scoring highly on the PCI scale and lower on the RJI scale, or the more custodial an individual's ideologies are, the less restorative they will be. Whilst it may seem like an obvious finding that if an individual is more custodial they will be less restorative, it is actually an interesting one as RA in schools have not been investigated in this manner previously. This finding is particularly interesting and in terms of the wider literature and deserves further consideration. McCluskey *et al* (2011) suggested that one of the reasons for individuals resisting RA was the underlying ideological philosophies. Whilst this research did not find any relationships between measurable factors and

ideologies, this link between being restorative and being custodial may be helpful for further research, and practically for implementations. Exploring both authority dynamics within schools, and cultural and individual ideologies may be able to give some insight into why implementations work better in some schools than others, and why there often remains a number of individuals resistant to using restorative approaches. An individual's ideology regarding Pupil Control Ideology could bear a significant influence on how they accept and make use of restorative approaches.

Evidence from pupil focus groups, observations and staff interviews would suggest that in *School One* and *School Two* teachers gained authority in the classroom through different means. Staff from *School One* seemed to exhibit more pedagogical or personal authority. Staff in *School Two* generally seemed to gain authority on the basis of *legitimate authority*, *traditional authority*, and *positional authority*. These are the types of authority that are typified in a way that simply by being the teacher in a classroom situation, the teacher is granted authority. Types of authority similar to these may be more threatened by classroom management philosophies that focus on relationship building or looking at the rights of the child. Supporting this in *School Two* is the idea that RA is the soft option, that it allows pupils to get away with it, and that it does not provide enough of a consequence to pupils' unacceptable behaviour to act as a deterrent. The pupils' feelings that teachers are punitive, strict and there is a lack of respect for pupils from school staff is also supportive of the idea that the authority types of staff in *School Two* may be threatened by restorative approaches. Combining both staff and pupil views on unacceptable behaviour in *School Two* would suggest that the current school climate is far from a restorative one. Cameron and Green (2004) argue that at an organisational level change is dependent on both individual and group propensity for change. Whilst the school culture is important for change, the individuals within this culture also need to be carefully considered. Gregory *et al* (2014) could not explain why some teachers implemented RA more than others. To that reasoning, this research used the RJI and PCI scales to try and test for relationships and potentially reasons why some individuals are more likely to use RA than others. Although there were no significant differences in the quantitative results between *School One* and *School Two*, it would appear from the qualitative analysis that the staff in the school enact their authority differently and that *School One* originally conceptualised authority in a way that is not as threatened by restorative approaches. Whereas in *School Two*, RA threatens to take away the authority they feel they have. The type of authority teachers feel they have in *School Two* is more typified by having a control over pupils and a sense of entitlement to this control due to their role

as teacher in the classroom.

The fact that restorative lines of questioning were recognised in *School One* is a real positive for the integration of restorative approaches, and suggests that the school could slowly be moving away from the more traditional punitive mindset. If *School One* possessed a more relational ecology based on engagement with relationships and their education then this could be a reason for *School One* adopting RA more considerably than *School Two*. The relational ecology emphasises the importance of social engagement over social control (Morrison and Vaandering, 2012), and this can be seen in the evidence from *School One* where engagement, active listening and the importance of relationships were all prominent themes. By enacting authority in a pedagogical manner, a teacher's ability to encourage and support their pupils in learning is fundamental, and this creates healthy, respectful relationships between pupils and teachers (Harjunen, 2008). This would appear to be happening in *School One* and this means that potentially teachers in the school understand discipline as not simply an orderly classroom, but as something that is educational for pupils. Authority is exercised in a positive way that pupils react well to. Therefore a classroom situation is seen not only as a place for pupils to learn the curriculum but also a place where pupils can focus on their own personal development. By managing their classrooms in this way teachers in *School One* encourage pupils both socially and academically (Vitto, 2003).

Throughout the literature, Rideout *et al.* (2010) used the PCI index to investigate the use of RA in schools and found no significant results. The RJI index has not previously been used in order to investigate RA in schools, although the PCI index has been used with no significant findings (Ontario Education Research Exchange, 2009). Hoy (1967) conceptualised a custodial ideology as the ideology backing a rigidly traditional school. Order and good behaviour are of the utmost importance and behaviour is tightly controlled. There is no attempt by teachers to understand pupil behaviour and they view schools as organisations with a rigid hierarchy where pupils must accept the decisions of teachers without any questioning (Hoy, 2001). On the humanistic end of the continuum, Hoy (2001) conceptualised the school as a 'learning community' where interpersonal relationships are important and schooling is a two-way communication between pupils and staff. There is an emphasis on self-discipline and pupils acting on their own will, but then accepting the consequences and responsibility of their actions. It is important to note that these two ideologies are extremes at separate ends of a continuum, and every individual in these



schools will be placed along these. The humanistic end of the continuum is obviously more in keeping with a RA to teaching, with relationships and responsibility being placed in high regard and important for a healthy school community. It comes a little surprise then that those who are more restorative in their ideology will be less custodial. However, this does solidify some interesting issues about traditional authority roles and the introduction of RA in school. This research would therefore suggest that the complex relationship between authority and RA needs to be researched further, in order for more individuals to take up using restorative approaches. This may dispute the Social Discipline Window that Wachtel and Costello (2009) proposed, as the research identified a wide range of different behaviour management and authority factors, the Social Discipline Window may in fact be too simplistic to cover all the ways teachers try to maintain order in the classroom.

By combining the evidence from the data analysis and discussion this research suggests that way in which school staff enact authority has an affect on how they accept, understand and inevitably decide to use restorative approaches. This section argues that Wachtel and Costello's (2009) Social Discipline window is too simplistic to encompass the varying ways in which teachers enact authority and the various factors that need to be considered when conceptualising the relationship between teacher authority and restorative approaches. This research suggests that a different way to conceptualise teachers maintaining order and authority in the classroom would be helpful in implementing restorative approaches. It would allow teachers a broader understanding and insight of their own teaching behaviours and therefore facilitate change more easily. This research would suggest that teacher authority should be conceptualised more along the lines of Wrong's (2002) work, rather than Baumrind's (1967) work as Wachtel and Costello (2009) have done. The other conceptualisation of authority provides more room to discuss relationships and the importance of these, rather than discussing what should be done to pupils. Morrison and Vaandering (2012) discuss in their critique of the Social Discipline Window that it still requires teachers to talk in terms of things they are doing to the pupils, rather than a process whereby teachers gain authority through interactions between the school staff and pupils. In their article, they suggest a method of conceptualising RA that is built on the Social Discipline Window, but with an emphasis on relationships throughout the window. Vaandering (2009) argues that by changing the emphasis to relationships amongst people and their environments a more effective window that encourages individuals to reflect on their interpersonal interactions is created.

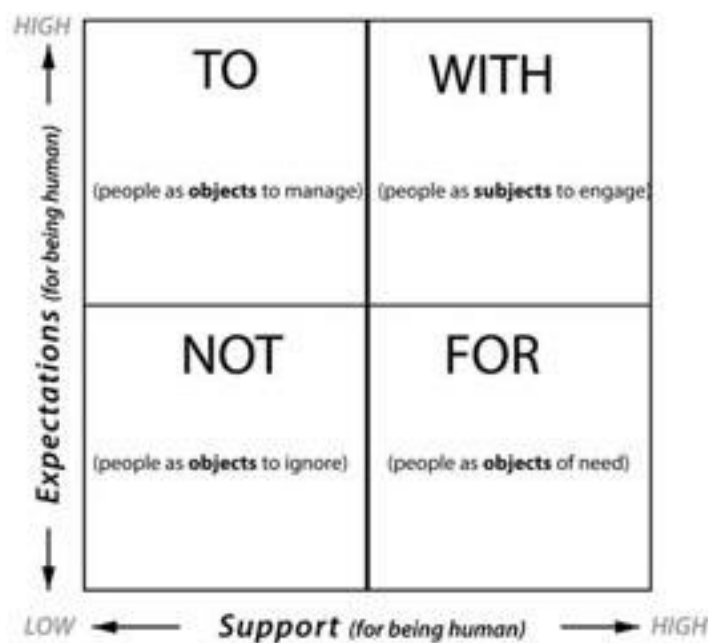


Figure 5: Relationship Window (Vaandering, 2010, p. 8).

The literature reviews and analyses that this research has carried out would suggest that alongside a conceptualisation such as the *Relationship Window*, different conceptualisations of teacher authority should be focused on. When implementing restorative approaches, training should include detailed information on how forging strong pedagogical relationships with pupils can create authority for a teacher. The issue of authority needs to be addressed in training, so that teachers do not feel they are losing their power. Further research on authority in classrooms and RA would be beneficial to practitioners.

## 6.5

### 4. How did the training and involvement of outside agency affect the implementation of restorative approaches?

Evidence shows that in each of *School One* and *Two* issues with resources and training greatly affected how RA was received by the staff. The first restorative officer situated in the same schools revealed the same challenges for both schools, as this was the first officer in situ this means that the schools may not have shown any differences at this point. However, the

restorative officer two identified separate challenges for both schools. The first officers concerns were primarily to do with resources, mainly the time for teachers to learn and implement RA was a big issues. Alongside this the time that restorative officers actually had to provide training was an issue. They were confined to inset days, however there were often other training issues that needed to be factored in as well. So in reality, the restorative officers actually had very little time to provide adequate training for the majority of the staff. Another worry shared by the restorative officer and across staff in both schools was that, because of the lack of time, that RA may not continue in the schools if the restorative officer left. The fact that the Local Educational Authority was not backing the use for RA was also felt to be a downfall by the first restorative officer. It was believed that some kind of official backing from higher than the management in school would be helpful in the consistent use of RA and also in staffs motivation to implement. This kind of backing would encourage the development of RA in the schools and perhaps ensure that implementation continued even when change seems slow. These practical reasons, particularly ones related to resources, are very in line with the RA literature.

It would appear that the practical issues of training, time, resources, and money cannot be emphasised enough in implementing restorative approaches. Karp and Breslin (2001) found that training took too long and staff felt that they didn't have time to make use of RA properly. Difficulty with getting staff on board with RA is well documented across the RA literature. In order for RA to be properly integrated into the workings of the schools there is a need for buy-in on a grass-roots level (Roland *et al*, 2012). This kind of buy in requires extensive support from the school and sufficient resources to allow time for staff to become comfortable with restorative approaches. Stinchcomb *et al* (2006) found a major barrier to implementation was teachers perceptions of RA as too time intensive and a fear of lost teaching time, particularly given the current teacher evaluation climate. Successful implementation of RA is generally thought to take between 3-5 years (Blood, 2005; Morrison, 2005; Hopkins, 2004) so it's essential these practical issues are considered before implementation in order to provide adequate support for school staff and adequate allowances for training. Staff training is an essential part of the implementation, ensuring that they understand RA and are comfortable using them and this needs to be considered by both the school and the individuals training teachers (Shaw, 2007).

The content of the training also needs to be carefully considered. Misconceptions surrounding RA and authority might mean that school staff are unwilling to implement restorative

approaches. In *School Two* there seemed to be an understanding of RA and what ‘being restorative’ actually means, that is not in line with the RA literature. Throughout the observations, the use of punitive language and traditional lines of questioning were a reoccurring theme. There was a lot of general different understandings of RA in *School Two*, and the majority of staff couldn't necessarily identify restorative approaches. There were some ideas that it was a ‘soft’ option and about not being mean to pupils. Although being mean to pupils isn’t part of restorative approaches, there’s a lot more to RA than simply this. In *School Two*, one member of staff said that society has changed discipline wise and teachers cannot be disciplinarians anymore. However, this takes on a meaning of discipline and authority that differs greatly from the ideas of reconceptualising discipline as an educational concept and therefore creating a more restorative climate. The more authoritarian use of the world discipline fits in with the overall more punitive, authoritarian ecology and ethos in *School Two*. An understanding of RA is obviously essential for its meaningful and sustainable implementation in schools. Bitel (2004) that some teachers who believed they knew a lot about RA were actually unable to identify any of its principles, values, or processes. It is important that teacher understand RA and what it is and is not so they do not feel as though they are using the ‘soft’ option. Shaw (2007) found that there was a worry that they would lose control in the classroom when using restorative approaches. This can be seen in *School Two* where there is a preoccupation with the idea of consequences in the form of punishment. It is believed that punishment acts as the best deterrent to misbehaviour, and that it’s the most appropriate consequence for wrongdoing. In *School Two*, there existed the conception that pupils would be ‘getting away’ with things if RA were used.

One of the issues that needs to be carefully considered is the use of the Youth Justice Service restorative officers in implementing restorative approaches. Hargreaves (1997) found that one of the main reasons why school reform can often fail is that the change is often unclear and poorly conceptualised amongst the school staff. Using outside agencies to help with this conceptualisation could act as a barrier, or be helpful for organisations. It depends on how the school views the role of RA and the individuals providing the training. Whilst the Youth Justice Service had an implementation plan complete with training guidance, time was a big factor in them being able to train staff restoratively in each school. The lack of time led to a relatively small amount of staff receiving full training which clearly is not conducive to a large scale use of RA across the schools. Another aspect that needs to be considered is how an outside agency

implementing RA affects the schools and staffs ownership of the change. Restorative officer one was concerned that if they were taken out of either school RA would not continue. In *School Two* particularly, one of the themes was that the restorative conferences were something that were carried out only by the restorative officers, and this potentially acted as a barrier to changing principles and values and also a barrier to staff ownership of restorative approaches. Hopkins (2002) found that the use of outside agencies could be problematic in implementation, in that often it was felt these skills were too complex for the staff to carry out. This was mirrored in the current research as staff felt they may not be able to carry out restorative processes in the same way the officers could. However, Kane *et al* (2006) found that help from outside agencies could be a real positive in helping teachers understand and utilise restorative approaches.

In the context of this research, in *School Two* the outside implementation seems to have taken ownership of RA away from the school and it is just seen as something done by the restorative officer. In *School One*, whilst there was still a concern by the first restorative officer that RA would stop if they left, the second officer was slightly more optimistic. With the implementation of a peer-mentoring scheme the ongoing use of RA as part of the school culture seems more likely, and takes ownership of RA away from the officer and places it with the pupils and staff. Due to the school leadership in *School One* being behind the use and introduction of restorative approaches, this places general ownership and empowerment from RA more in the hands of the school staff also. One of the main factors in educational reform failure is when resources put in place to help implementation are withdrawn or lacking (Hargreaves, 1997). Restorative officer two felt that the lack of time they were able to spend in each school was significant barrier to implementation. Blood and Thorsborne outlined a number of factors that either help or hinder how well RA is accepted and utilised by a school. Two of these were how, to who and by whom the training is administered and received, and the degree to which outside agencies may be involved (Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). The positive and negatives of using outside individuals needs to be considered, and it may be necessary to alter outside agencies training to bring it more in line with the existing school ecology initially. The existing context that RA will be implemented into needs to be considered by both senior management and outside agencies, and a personalised implementation plan should be made for each school that wishes to use restorative approaches. It is clear from the current and other research that there is no 'one size fits all' approach to using RA in schools, and there are in fact several nuanced ways that schools use

restorative approaches. McCluskey *et al* (2008) found that RA varied across schools they investigated, and argued this may be a result of ideological differences between a restorative approach and the more traditional authoritarian beliefs about managing pupil behaviour. Staff in this research used RA in ways that fit in with their outlook on behavioural management and what works with controlling pupil behaviour in classrooms. Whereas some staff did not feel RA provided adequate consequences, some felt that building relationships was one of the most important aspect of preventing misbehaviour, however if misbehaviour did occur they may not necessarily use restorative processes to resolve the issues. The various levels that RA can be used on, and how these approaches fit in with the way the existing school culture and staff work should be carefully considered. An approach suitable to the specific school, staff, pupils and needs is essential to ensure the successful implementation of restorative approaches.

## 6.6

### 5. *How did the pupils recognise the implementation of RA in the schools?*

In order to understand whether RA have made any initial or lasting cultural impact or change it was important to see whether pupils had noticed any changes in the school culture or recognised RA in any way. As pupils are a vital part of the school ecology it was determined that they would be a good indicator on how RA has been implemented into the schools and whether it has been utilised. In their research on RA in schools, Gregory *et al* (2014) used the investigation of positive relationships to decide how successful the implementation had been. One of the main ways they did this was by exploring whether pupils saw their relationships with staff as respectful (Gregory *et al*, 2014). With the exception of this, most existing research on RA in education and school pupils looks at evaluating the use of restorative processes with specific pupils. This means gauging how satisfied pupils are with specific restorative processes, rather than using pupils to gauge whether the school culture or ethos has changed at all. However, this research explored the pupils ideas about behaviour management in the schools and whether they understood the fundamentals of restorative approaches. In *School One* pupils were more understanding of the main tenets of restorative approaches, and more aware that it was happening within the school. Again this could be indicative of a different general culture within the school that is more focused on relationships. In *School Two* the majority of pupils had not heard of restorative approaches, and again where they had there was a misunderstanding of RA of other pupils “getting away with it” because they were not being punished. Pupils in *School*

*Two* however did believe that it was important that the root cause of the behaviour was established and this may help resolve future behavioural issues. An interesting comparison to draw between the two schools is the pupils views on pastoral care in the school. This is indicative of a different ethos/culture in the schools. Both schools have the same pastoral care facilities called “Hafan”. This is the Welsh word for home and is a specific place, staffed by non-teaching staff where pupils are able to go when they are struggling, if they are ill, when they want to talk to someone, if they feel something bad has happened, and often, they deal with pupils who have had behavioural issues in the past. In *School One*, pupils praised Hafan as a place for themselves or other pupils to go and get the help they need. They were very happy with the arrangements set up within the school in terms of pastoral care. In *School Two*, pupils viewed Hafan as a place where pupils can easily ‘get out’ of trouble and spend time away from lessons just because they wanted to. Overall, this could be indicative of a generally different ethos/philosophy in the schools. Whereas *School One* was sensitive to other pupils issues, *School Two* viewed them as more of a way to get out of things. Overall, this denotes an underlying mistrust in the pupils and their motives by other pupils. The mistrust in other pupils could have been gained from a more general school culture that promotes this kind of attitude towards others. Peterson and Deal (1998) argue that in a positive school culture there is a shared ethos of caring and concern for one another. When the school has a positive culture the pupils and staff will benefit socially, as well as academically. Smith and Tomlinson (1990) also identified a culture where all members of the school community show respect to one another as a trait of more effective schools. Again, this more positive school culture seen in *School One* could be indicative of a culture that is based on relationships between all members of the community.

In *School One*, pupils voiced that they felt the school was ‘fair’ and ‘democratic’ in dealing with behavioural issues throughout the school. Pupils believed that everyone got a chance to voice their opinions and be heard by the teachers, and this was very important to them. Both teachers and pupils placed a great emphasis on fair, democratic relationships based on mutual respect. However, for both teachers and pupils they often did not know that this was explicitly tied in with a restorative ethos. The emphasis on fair and respectful relationships would have been one of the main factors on which the relational ethos in the school was built on. Levine and LezoHe (1990) found that in effective school cultures, an orderly environment is associated with positive inter-personal relationships. Whilst pupils in *School One* and *Two* mentioned that different teachers dealt with things in different ways, this was interpreted very differently by pupils in both schools. In *School One* pupils noted that whilst you could ‘get away with’ more with

certain teachers or in certain types of lesson, this was often because of individual differences between the teachers. An understanding like this could be indicative of better pupil- teacher relationships. In *School Two*, the pupils did not recognise that differences between teachers' personalities could lead to differences in how they could behave in the classroom and believed this was fundamentally unfair. The understanding in *School One* that different teachers will react to behaviour differently shows recognition by pupils that teachers are also individuals, and potentially highlights better relationships between pupils and staff.

In *School One*, a number of the pupils that took part in the focus groups recognised what RA was. There was a recognition that restorative processes meant compromising and those involved coming to a collective resolution for any problem. Pupils generally recognised the central restorative tenets and were aware that it was being used in the school in *School One*. In any large scale implementation of RA the pupils will become more aware of RA as it becomes more entrenched in the school culture (Lloyd *et al*, 2007; Blood and Thorsborne, 2005). There was evidence that pupils in *School One* felt that all members of the school community were treated with fairness and respect. Again, the idea that relationships were important for *School One* was strengthened. Pupils still acknowledged however that teachers did shout and use traditional punishment still; this is in keeping with the general theme that *School One* was slowly becoming more restorative but punishment still remained entrenched. As literature suggests the shift from a punitive to restorative mindset is not a simple one and can take many years. Whilst pupils discussed inconsistencies in how behaviour management was carried out across the school, they recognised that this could be due to differing teacher characteristics. This recognition is potentially informed by the stronger pupil-teacher relationships that have been evidenced throughout the research. Although by no means was *School One* fully restorative; it did show signs of possessing the relational ecology that has been discussed throughout this chapter and the literature reviews. The recognition by the pupils of strong relationships and respect is supportive of this. In agreement with the wider literature however, is that concern that the punitive, managerial structures that cause issues with the full implementation of RA still exist and will be difficult to replace in both *School One* and *School Two* (Hopkins, 2004; Morrison, 2007; Morris, 1998). Similarly, McCluskey *et al* (2008) found the biggest challenge facing RA were the 'taken for granted' structures that exist within school regarding behaviour management and discipline. Infrastructure that directly relates to the use of RA might be helpful here, in order to provide support and structure for school staff moving forward with restorative approaches. In *School One*



the use of *Hafan* was seen mainly as a positive from pupils, where in *School Two* it was seen as pupils trying to “get out of” things. Whilst *Hafan* was not a strictly restorative space, pastoral care of this nature and individuals attitudes towards it shows the cultural inclination towards the kind of infrastructure that supports restorative approaches.

In *School Two* pupils felt that they deserved more fair treatment, respect, and consistency from their teachers. It was evidenced that pupils thought the school would be a better place if teachers were more respectful of all pupils, and not just the ones that they favoured. Pupils in *School Two* mentioned that their favourite teachers listening to and respected the pupils; however, in general they felt there was a lack of respect for teachers. The perceived lack of respect by pupils is indicative of less healthy relationships within the school. Respectful relationships between all members of the school community are a central restorative tenet and fundamental to RA in schools (Hopkins, 2004; Lloyd *et al*, 2006). Pupils felt that inconsistency amongst how teacher dealt with misbehaviour was unfair and led them to being reprimanded more often as they did not know how they could behave in each lesson. The literature shows that often inconsistency can lead to feelings of unfairness and injustice amongst the pupils (Kokotsaki, 2013). Inconsistency like this indicates a wider confusion between pupils on boundaries and expectations. Boundaries and expectations are essential to creating a relational ecology, and therefore an ethos that is more consistent with restorative approaches. Very few of the pupils spoken to during the research has heard of RA in *School Two*. One of the main ideas about RA apparent through the pupils in *School Two* was that RA was essentially guilt-tripping and a means of getting a confession or an admission of wrong-doing from pupils. By having an understanding of what RA as guilt-tripping shows that RA has not been successfully implemented into the *School Two* ethos. To conclude this question, the current research suggests that *School Two* has a more authoritarian and traditionally punitive ethos than *School One*. By including the pupils in this research and allowing them to reflect on their school conditions this allows for a critical review of the school culture and implementation of RA (Gregory *et al*, 2014). In *School One* pupils generally felt that they had respectful relationships with staff members and they felt the school was democratic, McCluskey *et al* (2008) found that pupils ‘feeling heard’ within their school was often a mark of higher RA fidelity. RA does not seem to have made any lasting impact on the pupils and this is indicative of poor uptake of RA generally. In order to implement RA successfully it may be helpful for schools to cultivate this relational ecology before beginning the formal introduction of restorative approaches. Factors that would help with this are an increased focus on relationships within the school, for example, peer-mentoring schemes where pupils are encouraged to take more

responsibility for their own issues.

### ***6.7 Blood and Thorsborne's ten factors that affect implementation: table eighteen***

In their research on the implementation of RA in schools, Blood and Thorsborne (2005) identified ten main factors that have a fundamental effect on how well RA is understood, accepted and used within the school. The current research mirrors a number of these concerns and this, alongside the other research reviewed throughout this thesis, shows multiple issues that commonly cause concern when implementing restorative approaches. The current research finding will be placed alongside Blood and Thorsborne's (2006) findings in a table, in order to clearly and succinctly show where the major implementation issues may lie and bring attention to these areas for future implementation attempts.

<b>Blood and Thorsborne's (2006) ten factors that affect implementation (p.6)</b>	<b>Similarities with the current research</b>
Amount of funding available	There was a concern within each school that when the Youth Justice Service withdrew their support that RA would fail to continue within the schools. The lack of resources and time were a major concern for <i>School One</i> and <i>School Two</i> .
Overall vision and expectation of the key stakeholders	In <i>School One</i> the key stakeholders were clear that they wanted RA to become a major part in the way the school dealt with difficult behaviour, although they wanted this to work alongside the existing disciplinary procedures. In <i>School Two</i> there was less direction in how RA would be used within the school and a lot of structural change within the school meant the key stakeholders had less time for restorative approaches.

Blood and Thorsborne's (2006) ten factors that affect implementation (p.6)	Similarities with the current research
Existing school culture	The analysis and subsequent discussion has shed light on the existing cultures within each school. In <i>School One</i> research shows that an emphasis was placed on fair, respectful relationships that made it easier for staff and pupil to accept, understand and use restorative approaches. In <i>School Two</i> there was less emphasis on relationships, and control and punishment were seen as the ways to deal with difficult behaviour. Pupils felt they were not respected by school staff. This made it more difficult for RA to be understood and used in the school.
Pre-existing school policies and measures used to deal with conflict	Both schools had pre-existing policies for disciplinary and pastoral support. At the end point of this research, neither school had written RA into their policies or expressed intention to do this.
How, to whom, and by whom the training is administered and received	There were a number of issues surrounding training and how training was administered in both schools. These were mainly due to lack of time and resources in each school and the YJS. A number of staff only received a powerpoint presentation on RA that gave them an understanding of RA that was not always consistent with the literature.
Whether RA incorporated into the curriculum	As of yet RA have not been incorporated into any wider curricula. This was a point of contention for the restorative officers who felt that it would be highly beneficial if this were to happen.
The external school community	This research did not address the issues of the wider school community becoming involved in restorative approaches, and this would be a valuable direction for future research looking at the implementation of RA using a similar methodology.

Blood and Thorsborne's (2006) ten factors that affect implementation (p.6)	Similarities with the current research
The time scale given for implementation	In <i>School One</i> it was recognised that the implementation of RA would take some time. There was a continued dedication, particularly by key stakeholders to ensure that the use of RA maintain momentum. In <i>School Two</i> due to structural change within the school and key stakeholders having less time to carry out or train in RA it seemed unlikely that it would continue after the restorative officer had left. Neither school had a timeframe for implementation, and the YJS would remain in situ for as long as their funding continued.
The degree to which outside agents may be involved	In <i>School One</i> and <i>School Two</i> there was a concern that when the restorative officer left the school, RA would not be utilised anymore. There was the impression, particularly in <i>School Two</i> , that RA was the job of the restorative officer. In <i>School One</i> where other restorative elements had been introduced to the school this was less of a concern.
The commitment and continued presence of the key stakeholders	In <i>School One</i> there were a number of individuals including school leadership who were committed to the use and presence of RA in the school, even when teacher were becoming frustrated with slow progress. In <i>School Two</i> there seemed to be a lack of coherence and backing to the use of RA beyond the work that the restorative officers were doing. Partly due to a restructuring of staff whereby staff that had been using RA did not have time to do so anymore.

## 6.9 Summary

The data analysis and discussion chapters alongside the existing literature show there is a distinct contrast between how *School One* and *School Two* have understood and utilised restorative approaches. In *School One* it would appear that the schools relational ecology has guided educational practice and facilitated the use of RA into the school to a certain extent. The existing

underlying values, principles attitudes and knowledge inherent in *School One* were more compatible with a restorative approach and this led to an easier understanding and adoption of restorative language and a restorative ethos focus on relationships and respect. Evidence suggests that whilst staff in *School One* were more understanding of and receptive to RA, their situation in the school context of compliance meant that it would not fully be implemented. Structures intended to manage behaviour in both *School One* and *School Two* had far-reaching effect on the uptake, understanding and implementation of restorative approaches. In *School One*, senior staff members were on board and enthusiastic about the change, whereas this same enthusiasm did not exist in *School Two*. It seems that from this research and other research based on the implementation of RA, the changes related to moving from a punitive mindset to a more restorative one are greatly dependent on the existing school context, culture, and ecology. In *School One*, there was a more relational ecology typified by engagement, the importance of relationships, and, boundaries and expectations. *School Two* had an ecology based more on punishment, consequences, and a more authoritarian approach.

The importance of the practical factors in changing these mindsets is vital. Blood and Thorsborne (2005) identified ten factors that can either help or hinder the implementation of restorative approaches. The ten factors were placed alongside the current research and its findings and are all apparent throughout the analysis and discussion of the data collected this research. Although *School One* seems to have understood and utilised RA more effectively, it is important to note that neither school has managed to convince all members of staff of the effectiveness of RA or get rid of the infrastructure that supports punishment within the schools. This position is evident throughout the literature where although enthusiasm exists regarding the use of restorative approaches, its use as a behaviour management strategy is still its main merit (Morrison, 2007; Porter, 2007). A factor that this research has identified that fits in as a part of the school ecology is the authority relations in the school. How authority is conceptualised by staff in the school may have a large effect on how both individual and collective change is carried out. It is important for teachers to realise that they still have authority in the classroom when a restorative approach is being carried out, however this authority is more based on relationships and engagement with the classroom, rather than teachers enacting their control over pupils. This chapter has situated the current research within the large amount of literature reviewed relating to RA and has identified a number of factors that influence the implementation in schools. The current research supported existing research on the implementation of RA and

what can help or hinder the understanding, acceptance and use of RA in schools. There are a number of areas that need further exploration in order for RA to be used successfully, meaningfully and realistically in schools. The final concluding section of the thesis will look at further recommendation for research and make some suggestions about the successful implementation of RA in education.

## **Conclusion**

To conclude this research, the thesis will be placed in the context of the wider RA literature and offer some guidance on factors that need to be considered when implementing in schools. The conclusion will bring the discussion chapter together with the literature review chapters; to situate this piece of research within the wider theoretical literature and underpinnings. Gaps that have been illuminated in the literature will be discussed and suggestions for further research on the implementation of RA in schools will be made. The research design was created in order to explore: how the context RA was implemented into affected implementation; and, what specific factors need to be carefully considered when implementation restorative approaches. The specific focus and methodology of this research distinguish its contribution to the growing body of literature regarding RA in education. Research tends to focus explicitly on the outcomes of reactive restorative processes and approaches, and have not sought to exclusively understand why the implementation of RA can be particularly difficult for schools. Outcomes are an important part of any program implementation, and evaluation is a valuable tool for researching these. Whilst not ignoring outcomes, this research pays particular interest to the implementation process of RA in schools. Other evaluations show generally positive results, however there often remains some resistance to the use of restorative approaches. As a result of this resistance, the focus of the current research was to explore how might be the best way to implement restorative approaches. The practical and theoretical implications of the current research and what it potentially means for the implementation of RA will now be discussed.

### **7.1 Summary of key research findings**

A number of interesting findings emerged from the current research. The key findings for moving on the literature and adding to the current knowledge will be discussed succinctly here. The need for further theorisation between authority relationships in schools and how the introduction of RA may affect these is clearly highlighted in the current research. Teachers enact authority over their pupils in a variety of different ways, in a variety of different settings. Teachers will choose to enact their authority in different ways, based on personal preference and their own experiences. It appears that whilst some teachers may enact their authority in a more relational way, similar to RA, some may not. Those who are more authoritarian with their teaching may perceive RA as a threat to their authority in the classroom. Therefore, relationships within the school are vital to the acceptance and use of restorative approaches, and in order to

successfully use restorative approaches. The importance of relationships was apparent throughout the literature review (Cameron and Thorsborne, 1999; McCluskey *et al*, 2008a; Shaw, 2007), and the current research is very supportive of this. The school that seemed to show a greater understanding, acceptance and utilisation of RA was the school where relationships were highly valued as a way of ensuring minimal disruption. The context within which RA is implemented is extremely important and a big deciding factor in how helpful the implementation of RA are. In schools where interpersonal relationships are highly valued, RA may be easier to implement, as the school is used to working in relational manner. The schools where interpersonal relationships are not as highly valued, may be most in need of RA, but may find it difficult to implement.

Before implementing RA it is worth considering the context, and way in which the foundations of RA can be placed, before actually attempting to implement the reactive processes. Similar to how schools have created infrastructure to deal with punishment, infrastructure specifically related to the use of RA will increase the use and longevity of RA as it will provide these restorative foundations within a school. Support from senior members of staff is essential to the sustainable use of RA, as implementation is a slow and time intensive endeavour. Help from outside agencies in the implementation of RA can potentially provide less incentive for the use of RA and needs to be carefully considered by the key stakeholders. RA are a conceptually complex set of practices, and in order for teachers to be willing to understand and use them they need to take full ownership of the implementation. The current research found that whilst the work the restorative officers were doing was helpful, it prevented the school staff from taking full ownership of RA, as it was not always seen as their job. The meaning and uses of RA appeared nuanced across both schools; particularly across individuals with different understandings of how RA should be used and in what context. The vitality of in-depth training, so that teachers fully understand the complex foundations of RA is seen here. Confusion surround the use of RA as simply being nice, talking to pupils or as a 'soft' option were apparent throughout the research. Teachers tended to recognise the restorative skills more than the restorative philosophy, and this suggests that these skills were already used by a number of teachers. Therefore, training of staff in RA needs to be carefully considered and tailored to meet and compliment the existing school culture. Assessing attitudes within the schools and providing training that builds on prior beliefs in the school may be helpful here. By encouraging restorative philosophies and structures and practices that would support the use of RA, before the implementation of RA it may become an



easier concept to understand.

## **7.2 Implications for the wider research and theory**

For education particularly, evidence based practice is an important facet of the field and research is important for shaping, developing and improving educational practice (Thomas, 2004). The purpose of this research was to explore how various features of the two schools affect the implementation of restorative approaches. In order to gauge an overall behaviour management philosophy in each school it was important to use a variety of research methods in order to gain as much detail as possible. In terms of the information collected, it is now possible for this research to make some suggestions about how to implement RA in schools in a meaningful, sustainable, but also feasible manner. The research is in agreement with Bitel (2005) that RA is indeed ‘not a panacea for problems in schools’, but “*if implemented correctly ... could improve the school environment, enhance learning and encourage young people to become more responsible and empathetic*” (Bitel, 2005, p.13). However, there are a number of barriers to implementation that need to be addressed both by practitioners and by further research in the area in order to find a way to successfully overcome these barriers. Throughout the literature surrounding restorative approaches, evaluations have showed mainly positive outcomes.

## **7.3 Situating the research within the wider theory and literature**

In Chapter Two the literature discusses the evolution of classroom management to a more holistic meaning that describes teachers skills and methods that create supportive learning environments and build community (Evertson and Harris, 1999). Effective teaching is seen to facilitate effective teaching: meaningful content; an organisational culture that supports a productive learning environment; and, powerful teaching strategies (Larivee, 2005). The current research would argue that this supports the idea of a ‘relational ecology’ that Morrison and Vaandering (2011) proposed. By creating engaged environments that where pupils and staff both seek positive interpersonal relationships, and engage with both other individuals and the classroom material, the use of RA will become much simpler and a more natural way to deal with issues when they arise. However, this is not an easy transition to make. Clark (1998) argued in support of this shift, stating that authority needs to be strictly focused onto engaging pupils in their active experiences and encouraging self-discipline through considering this engagement and their relationships within the community. It is clear from the current research and further research in the area (for example, McCluskey *et al*, 2008; Gregory *et al*, 2011) that RA are used differently across many different

contexts. Currently, there is no research that can explicitly explain why not all members of staff will use RA and. Whilst *School One* possessed a culture that focused on relationships and engagement; the underlying need for punishment and traditional school structures still existed. RA needs to be understood beyond the context of behaviour and control (Vaandering, 2014); however this involves a massive shift in the current essence of schooling.

The current research would concur with previous studies that states that RA must move simply beyond behaviour management to transform schools into communities where structural and institutional factors are based on interpersonal relationships and engagement. In the current context, RA will continue to be used as a means of controlling behaviour, rather than as a means of managing relationships and encouraging social engagement. Even in schools where relationships are highly valued, little attention is paid to the structural, hierarchical aspects of school communities that aim to create compliant and controlled pupils. In agreement with Vaandering (2014), training in RA needs to ensure that it goes beyond the control and power language that reinforces behaviour management as important, and move towards reinforcing the value of a relationship based foundation and learning is the priority. Here the value of the *Relationship Window* can be seen, however the work to use this relationships requires a fundamental change in the structure of many schools. Vaandering (2010) acknowledges that in a time where a judicial understanding of rules and punishment is prevalent, it takes an intense effort to initiate and advance a real paradigm shift in schools. Whilst a monumental task that would inevitably take years to achieve in many schools, the research remains optimistic about the use of restorative approaches. A number of studies have found that the sustained whole-school use of RA that goes further than simply the reactionary processes is inconsistent and unsystematic (McCluskey *et al*, 2011; Morrison; 2007). However, that is not to say that the reactionary processes themselves are not helpful; by beginning to insert these types of processes and language into schools the move to more relational ecologies in schools will begin. McCluskey *et al* (2011) highlight one of the main paradoxes of the introduction of RA into school environments where traditional disciplinary structures and ideas of teacher authority exist: they ask “*Is it possible that RA represent at one and the same time... both a threat and a potential solution?*” (McCluskey *et al*, 2011, p. 115). Morrison and Vaandering (2011) add that “*If social engagement is key to the success of designing school contexts in support of proactive RJ [RA] discipline, what needs to be done further this agenda?*” (p.155). Creating schools with infrastructure that supports relationships and restorative processes may well be the way forward with this alongside the acknowledgement that building schools based on the essence of a relational ecology may lead to improvise academic and social engagement.

## 7.4 Recommendations for practitioners

The conclusion will make a number of practical suggestions for the implementation of RA in schools, then move onto make wider suggestions based on further research and the theoretical aspects of the current research. The pragmatic underpinning of this research means that the current research needs to be both useful for members of staff and practitioners, but also of use to the wider theoretical literature and research on the subject. Pragmatic research is value driven by the need to be helpful, and denies ever finding a ‘social truth’ (Rorty, 1999; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). For research similar to the current research, a pragmatic approach allows for the use of various collection and analysis methods with the main focus on being useful.

The first suggestion focuses on the training of staff members in the use of RA in education. The training needs to provide a sound, complete understanding of what RA means, the philosophies behind it, and how it can be utilised practically by members of staff. Schools that wish to implement RA need to decide what RA will mean within their particular school context, as the current research found RA carried a multitude of different meanings within each school context. Not all teachers interviewed in the current research showed a complete understanding RA. However, most of the members of staff interviewed recognised important restorative skills such as active listening. In *School One*, they particularly recognised the importance of relationships within schools for a number of reasons. If a school wishes to implement RA then training must be of the utmost priority. Evidence suggests that training needs to be carefully planned in order to work with the school staff from their current behavioural management philosophies, and develop these into more restorative philosophies. By creating an ecology based on relationships, RA will be easier to implement as staff and pupils will possess the needs restorative skills and think in terms of relationships within the school (Morrison and Vaandering, 2011). McNamee and Gergen (1999) state that in order for RA to be successful, it may be useful to highlight realistic commonalities between existing philosophies in the school and restorative approaches, and then work onwards from there. As with *School One*, if they were working with a more relational ecology it would be helpful to expand on this existing philosophy. For example, a number of teachers in *School One* felt that RA provided a natural extension of the way in which they formed authoritative relationships with pupils, and how they maintained authority in the classroom. As RA have various nuances across the schools it seems important to ensure that the use of RA feels like a development and improvement for the staff in a school, otherwise it will not be a sustainable change.

Cameron and Thorsborne (2001) emphasise the need for a complex understanding of restorative philosophy, skills and practices for all school staff. Training should contain a sound theoretical understanding of the basic tenets of RA and the restorative processes. Teachers will then be fully enabled to grasp the complex underpinnings of restorative approaches, understand that it is not simply another way of punishing pupils, and is in fact based on very different premises. An understanding of the main principles and values of RA is crucial for teachers to eventually understand the restorative processes and be able to implement this on a wider level. In order for training to be successful it would be suggested that the initial training is no shorter than a day, but also more importantly, that the training is ongoing. Basic training provided in the schools explored in the current research was a presentation, with further training involving a day or 3 day training course. The current research would suggest that the training provide more detail, and is carefully thought out to ensure that RA can be assimilated into the current school culture. Joyner (2002) argues that training should not be made of stand alone events that are inherently abstract from the work of schooling, but rather by ongoing and given by those who have worked consistently within the teaching context and are willing to pass on their knowledge, skills and experiences. To this end, practitioners and other educationalists may provide a valuable source of knowledge throughout training and implementation. There is potential here for senior members of staff to receive training before other members of staff, and be able to impart their knowledge and skill base to other members of staff

The second recommendation is regarding the use of outside agencies and support to implement restorative approaches. Throughout the larger body of literature and within this piece of research the use of outside agencies has gained mixed assessments. The current research was somewhat unusual in that the local Youth Justice Service were the outside agency that provided help with the implementation of restorative approaches. The restorative officer was situated within the school and carried out restorative processes whilst training school staff. Most often external companies that train school staff in RA will be hired to help schools with the implementation. Whilst outside agencies who are familiar and comfortable with the philosophy and use of RA are helpful to dispense training, this research would suggest schools should be careful about the use of outside agencies to consistently employ RA within the school. If outside agencies are involved in the implementation of RA it needs to be clear that it is not simply their job to carry out restorative processes, rather they are there to work alongside the school staff in creating a more restorative school climate. The current suggestion works alongside the first suggestion that training provides

school staff with both the philosophies of restorative approaches, and the skills to use these philosophies. Agencies providing schools with training need to ensure they are creating sustainable practices for staff within the school; that can be continued after they leave (Skinns *et al*, 2009). Working closely with senior staff and key stakeholders to create unique training that is suitable for that specific school context is vital for effective training. Using a whole-school restorative approach in schools takes time to embed within the culture; help from outside agencies may be useful in terms of time and resources needed. However, any help from outside agencies should provide on-going, hands on training for school staff; to ensure they feel comfortable and familiar using RA on their own.

The third recommendation is that the school wishing to utilise RA needs to prioritise time and training, and have a clear implementation plan. Again this suggestion is linked with the previous two. Implementation needs to be considered very carefully and realistically. Schools who wish to employ RA need to carefully consider the context that they are implementing RA into, and also the individuals who they hope will adopt restorative approaches. From the current research and other literature, it would appear that the existing context that RA is implemented into is very important (Cameron and Thorsborne, 1999; 2001). It is largely dependent on how a school wishes to use restorative approaches, to how it should be implemented. In terms of an implementation plan, whilst research suggest that a whole-school approach is the only way to successfully implement restorative approaches, this research would propose that by implementing RA well in smaller parts of the school, the changes will gradually begin to show and therefore become more appealing to other members of the school community. The current research would suggest that it is necessary for schools to provide various consultations with staff and ensure that staff have a say in how RA are implemented within the school and so that change happens at a pace that all members of staff feel comfortable with. The current school ecology needs to be carefully considered in planning implementation and all members of the school community and wider community should be made aware of the basic tenets of restorative approaches.

The fourth recommendation is that senior staff take an active role in backing, encouraging the use of, and utilising restorative approaches. A constant recurring theme throughout the literature on RA and more general school reform is the necessity of strong support and backing from senior management staff (Hargreaves, 1997; Cameron and Thorsborne, 2005; Mahaffey and Newton, 2008). These staff need to be cultural stakeholders and provide some of the drive for the use of restorative approaches, whilst remaining sensitive to staff concerns and allowing staff to take

ownership of the change. If senior staff were some of the first individuals in the school trained this would ensure that this training could be taken back to the school whilst helping develop an implementation plan that remains sympathetic to the existing school culture and its propensity for change. It would be helpful for senior staff to provide infrastructure that promotes working restoratively, rather than punitively.

The fifth recommendation is that if RA is to be implemented in a school, endorsement and support is sought from the Local Education Authority (LEA). In itself this may act as motivation for teachers to embrace and implement the changes. Wider backing from official agencies could provide a certain authority to the use of RA in education. The wider issues with resources may also be addressed here if the LEA are behind implementation they may be able to provide assistance with money, particularly allowing teachers to take part in ongoing training, and providing help with developing infrastructure that is strictly restorative. Backing from the LEA may add credibility to the use of restorative approaches, and schools operating in similar areas may benefit from the wealth of experience and knowledge that can be passed between them regarding implementation (Bitel, 2001).

The final recommendation is that if schools were to decide that implementing RA would be appropriate for their school, then it may be helpful for them to create a relational context and infrastructure prior to implementing more formal restorative approaches. Hargreaves (1999) argues that a wider understanding of the existing school culture and structure is necessary for any type of school change, and highlights where and how is best to implement the change. A consideration of the current school context, and how this can be made more relational before the introduction of RA would be helpful. Things like peer mentoring scheme set up for pupils and various activities and schemes that are aimed at improving relationships between all members of the school (and wider) community would ease the transition to the use of restorative approaches. Infrastructure suited to the use of RA should be put in place, similar to the way infrastructure for the different punishments is set up. Dedicated spaces where restorative conferences occur would ensure that the use of RA becomes a part of the way the school is run. Also dedicated spaces for restorative circle time, and other restorative processes would provide infrastructure that would mean the continued use of RA would be more likely within a school. By preparing the school beforehand by working on relationships and creating programs and spaces that can be restorative, the implementation of RA may be more successful.

## **7.5 Suggestions for future research**

The current research forms part of a growing body of literature on the use of RA in education. It highlights the need for further research on the implementation side of restorative approaches, as improving this could eventually improve outcomes if RA are properly situated within a restorative ‘milieu’ in a school setting. The current research would suggest that there needs to be further consideration about RA and government ideas of classroom management. Authority relationships and dynamics in the modern classroom need to be considered and researched further. Whilst government rhetoric continues to tell teachers that they need to regain control and authority in the classroom (DfE, 2010), increasingly behavioural management techniques and programs posit that this is not the way that misbehaving pupils should be dealt with. The idea that difficult behaviour in schools is continually getting worse, and the way to decrease this is to increase teachers powers shows a simplistic understanding of behaviour, authority and the classroom. As previously mentioned, the societal context that RA is implemented in might affect the implementation, similar to the way the school context does. The current research argues that the conceptualisation of authority and RA needs to go beyond the Social Discipline Window (Wachtel and Costello, 2004) and take into account the wide range of factors that affect the use of RA in schools and the wide range of styles teachers use in many different situations. By researching discipline, authority and RA in a manner similar to the idea of pedagogical authority and creating relational ecology as Morrison and Vaandering (2013) have done, then this will ensure that practitioners can communicate to teachers how they will maintain authority. In itself, this could make teachers more comfortable with learning and using restorative approaches. The current research would suggest that going back to Vaandering’s (2009) critique of the Social Discipline Window, and her offering of the Relationship Window (see figure, p. 74) as an alternative is a helpful place to start for school staff and practitioners. To create a culture where RA can be implemented into schools the current research would argue that rather than viewing pupils as individuals that staff will do things to, emphasising interpersonal relationships and how positive relationships can have an effect on the school as a whole would be a helpful place to start. Vaandering (2009) states that by viewing other people within the school as individuals to engage, rather than individuals to manage in some way, relationships within the school are improved.

The current research has presented the fact that the use of RA presents such a wide range of skills and values under the ‘restorative umbrella’ that actually, at some point in their career all teachers could potentially use the skill set. Differentiating where teachers have used a restorative type approach because that is the approach that they have always seen as most helpful, and where

teachers have picked up RA from training is a difficult task. Further research using the Restorative Justice Ideology (RJI) (Roland *et al*, 2012) scale in schools that are planning on implementing RA may be helpful and provide an understanding of what type of training is most valuable in learning and utilising restorative approaches. Research using the RJI could go onto explore whether some people are naturally more “restorative”, as this research would suggest some members of teaching staff naturally gain authority in a more restorative way. There exists a large body of psychological literature that looks at being authoritarian as simply a personality trait everyone will possess to some extent; it would be interesting to explore this in terms of being restorative. Research suggests that any school change needs to be picked up on an individual and cultural level in schools (Hopkins, 2006). The individual aspect of RA needs further research, in order to provide the best chance for RA to be implemented sustainably.

Further suggestions for research involve studying the implementation of RA but with differing methodologies. Whilst many varied prospective research designs were considered for the current research, the concurrent research design was chosen as the most efficient and appropriate design given the time period and resources that the researched had at their disposal. There are a number of suggestions that relate to the way in which the research is carried out that may result in different conclusion and provide alternative ways of considering the implementation of restorative approaches. Initially, this research intended to use a sequential design and approach to collecting the data, however due to time and resources constraints a concurrent approach was deemed the most appropriate. Further research looking at the implementation of RA using a sequential approach may be interesting and illuminate other potential factors that have an affect on implementation. A sequential approach to research collection would provide an interesting, and potentially very different look at the chosen research. It would have allowed research collection ethos to inform others and carry out the separate research collection methods in multiple phases. This would have created the possibility of an emergent research design, where the second phase of data collection would be informed by the first set of data analysis. For this research, a concurrent design was useful as it allowed the researcher to validate one form of data with another, and address different types of questions (Driscoll *et al*, 2007).

Research that looks into the implementation of RA in education but uses an approach other than a case study approach may be useful too. One of the main criticisms of case study research is that data collected cannot be generalised to the wider population because random sampling strategies are not employed (Thomas, 2011). Due to the dual-site nature of the current case-study that



concern was somewhat eased. The dual-site case study provided interesting and useful answers to these research questions, and therefore provided valuable data on the use of RA in education. The exploratory nature of the research questions meant that case studies presented the best method for collecting a sufficient amount of data and detail (Yin, 2004). Although case studies cannot yield “*watertight guarantees*”, Thomas (2011) argues that this is a strength and the explanations that case sites provide are “*malleable and interpretable*” to changing circumstances and therefore valuable for research such as this (Thomas, 2011, p.215). Erickson (1986) argues that although case study research is looking at the particulars, the general lies within this, and it is up to the particular reader to decide whether the research applies in their context. This means that readers can learn vicariously through the researchers description of the case (Stake, 2005). Therefore, the current research does provide interesting and helpful insights into the implementation of RA particularly for practitioners and educationalists. Similarly, a piece of research looking at comparable research questions but without a case study design might illuminate different areas.

### **7.6 Restorative Approaches in Education: where now?**

Currently, research into the use of RA in schools is in its relatively early stages. The larger scale evaluations of the use of RA in schools have shown general improvements in a number of important factors within the schools. Improvements have ranged from improved attendance and decreased use of punishments, to a more positive and healthier school climate. The current research moves the body of literature on in a number of ways. The distinguishable research design and access to data provided an in-depth view of the implementation of RA in two schools, from a number of different perspectives within the school. Due to this, a number of areas for further research have been highlighted, alongside suggestions that will ease the implementation of RA in schools. The main suggestions is the careful consideration of the current school context when planning any kind of implementation, and the ways it can affect training and uptake of restorative approaches. RA should be implemented in such a way that it works with the existing school context and aims to build on the more restorative components of the school culture. If these do not exist then creating more restorative components and focusing on relationships within the school before the official implementation of RA and training may be useful. One of the main suggestions for further research from this thesis was the further investigation of teacher authority and how this exists alongside the use of restorative approaches. Authority relationships within schools are vital, yet widely under-theorised. In order to create RA training that teachers feel comfortable with it is important for teachers to understand where their source of authority comes from when using restorative approaches, and that they will not necessarily be ‘giving up their power’ as teachers. As

authority and teaching are undeniably interlinked, there needs to be clearer research on the various ways in which authority is enacted in the classroom and how RA fit in with this. The current research has suggested that a relational authority, where authority is rooted in the pedagogical relationship between teacher and pupil, is the closest fit with restorative approaches. This relational authority then fits in with the idea of a relational ecology within schools, where the school culture, climate and relationships within them all interact and engage in a way that is centred around the relationships within the school.

Restorative justice and restorative type approaches are increasingly being sought out and utilised in a number of organisation across the UK. The current research has relevance to those wishing to implement RA in schools, or in any organisation where it may not follow the existing structural, cultural and individual norms. This research has shown the importance of considering the context that RA is being implemented into, and also the importance of how it is implemented. Suggestions are made that there can be no single method of implementation for RA and every school needs to develop their own detailed yet flexible implementation plan. RA has the potential to create engaged pedagogies and relational ecologies within schools, and this piece of research provides a modest beginning for its implementation in these contexts.

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# **Implementing Restorative Approaches in Education: an exploration of two case-study sites**

**Volume 2**

**Yasmin Devi-McGleish**

**Department of Law and Criminology**

**Aberystwyth University**

**This thesis is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**September 2016**

## Appendix A

### Consent Form - Researcher Copy

**Research Area:** The Implementation of Restorative Approaches in Schools

**Name of student:** Yasmin Devi McGleish

**Participant Name:**

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the project in which I have been asked to take part and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, up until the date the final thesis is written.
3. I understand that my responses will be recorded and that the data file and paper copies will be stored securely,
4. I understand that my responses will be anonymised and that all personal data about me will be kept confidential and secure.
5. I understand that the researcher must adhere to the Ethical Code of Practice set down by The British Society of Criminology and the University's ethical guidelines.
6. I agree to take part in the above research project.

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

**Contact Details:**

Yasmin Devi McGleish (PhD student) - [yyd8@aber.ac.uk](mailto:yyd8@aber.ac.uk)

Kate Williams (Joint supervisor) - [khw@aber.ac.uk](mailto:khw@aber.ac.uk)

Gareth Norris (Joint supervisor) - [ggn@aber.ac.uk](mailto:ggn@aber.ac.uk)

**Please return this copy to the researcher with the completed questionnaire.**

## Appendix B

### Focus Group Questions

Do you think your school is fair to pupils?

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Have you noticed any changes to how fair the school is recently?

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If someone is misbehaving in school how do you think the teachers **should** deal with them?

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How **do** the teachers deal with students who are misbehaving in school?

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~~Have you noticed any changes recently to how teachers deal with misbehaviour in school?~~

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Is there a lot of difference in the way different teachers deal with misbehaviour in school? If so, do you think this is fair?

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Have you heard of restorative approaches? And if so, can you say what you think they are?

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## **Appendix C**

### **Interview Consent Form**

**Research Area:** The Implementation of Restorative Approaches in Schools

**Name of student:** Yasmin Devi-McGleish

**Participant Name:**

**Date of birth:**

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the project in which I have been asked to take part and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, up until the date the final thesis is written.
3. I understand that my responses be reordered and that the data file and paper copies will be stored securely.
4. I understand that my responses will be anonymised and that all personal data about me will be kept confidential.
5. I understand that the researcher must adhere to the Ethical Code of Practice set down by The British Society of Criminology and the University's ethical guidelines.
6. I agree to take part in the research project.

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

Have you undergone any restorative approaches training?    Yes                      No

If yes, please give brief details:

### **Contact Details:**

Yasmin Devi-McGleish (researcher) - [yyd8@aber.ac.uk](mailto:yyd8@aber.ac.uk)

Kate Williams (supervisor) - [khw@aber.ac.uk](mailto:khw@aber.ac.uk)  
Gareth Norris (supervisor) - [ggn@aber.ac.uk](mailto:ggn@aber.ac.uk)



## Appendix D

### Interview Guide

#### Introductions

During the interview, I would like to discuss the following topics: punishment and discipline in the schools, different teaching styles, and, restorative approaches in schools.

Main Questions	Clarifying Questions
What do you see as disruptive behaviour in a school and classroom?	<p>Can you expand a little on this?</p> <p>Can you tell me anything else?</p> <p>Can you give me some examples?</p>
Why do you think pupils might behave in this way?	
What do you do to try and counteract this behaviour?	
What kind of behavioural management methods do you use?	
What do you think restorative approaches are?	
Do you think restorative approaches are an effective behavioural management method?	
Do you think restorative approaches have or will make an impact on the school?	
During your teacher training, how were told to maintain discipline in classrooms?	
What do you think your teaching/behaviour management style is?	

Main Questions	Clarifying Questions
What kind of strategies do you see other teachers use in order to maintain discipline and control?	
In your opinion, what is your job as a teacher?	
Would you feel confident using restorative approaches only? (not being allowed to use detention etc.)	
Are restorative approaches different to other behaviour management tools you have been asked to implement?	
Can you tell me what kind of general atmosphere you think your school has?	
What do you think are the main barriers are when trying to introduce restorative approaches in to the school?	
What do you think the purpose of classroom discipline is?	
Do you think restorative approaches are very different to existing methods used within the school?	
Do you think some members of staff will find it easier to use restorative approaches than others?	

Comments:

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## Appendix E

### *Questions for the RA Officer* *Concerning the implementation and use of restorative approaches*

**1. Please could you fill in this table regarding the number of cases at School One and School Two**

School One					School Two				
Referrals total	Prep stage	Active cases	Resolved cases	Conflict could not reach resolution	Referrals total	Prep stage	Active cases	Resolved cases	Conflict could not reach resolution

2.

**2. In your opinion what are the schools trying to achieve by utilising this approach?**

School One	School Two

**3. What do you think of as restorative justice?**

**4. What do you think of as restorative approaches?**

**5. When a case is referred could you briefly bullet point what happens.**

School One	School Two

**6. What type of preparation does the person who is harmed usually undertake? Please explain or attach any documents you may use during this process.**

**7. What type of preparation does the transgressor usually undertake? Please explain or attach any documents you may use during this process.**

**8. Who normally becomes involved (transgressor, person who is harmed, parents, teachers, etc.)?**

**9. Please complete this table regarding the outcomes from your past ten cases at School One. These outcomes may be for/from any of the parties involved.**

	Brief description of dispute	Outcomes
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		

<b>8</b>		
<b>9</b>		
<b>10</b>		

**10. Please do the same for your last 10 cases in School Two:**

	<b>Brief description of dispute</b>	<b>Outcomes</b>
<b>1</b>		
<b>2</b>		
<b>3</b>		
<b>4</b>		
<b>5</b>		
<b>6</b>		
<b>7</b>		
<b>8</b>		
<b>9</b>		

<b>10</b>		
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**11. Are cases referred if there is not a direct victim? (Please tick the box that applies)**

<b>School One</b>	<b>✓</b>	<b>School Two</b>	<b>✓</b>
<b>Yes</b>		<b>Yes</b>	
<b>No</b>		<b>No</b>	

**12. Please complete this table regarding the number of people who decline the use of the restorative approach.**

<b>School One</b>			<b>School Two</b>		
<b>Sufferer</b>	<b>Transgressor</b>	<b>Other (teachers, etc.)</b>	<b>Sufferer</b>	<b>Transgressor</b>	<b>Other</b>

**13. In cases where you have been involved in a meeting/conference, please indicate the number of instances where the outcome is:**

<b>School One</b>			<b>School Two</b>		
<b>Fully complied with</b>	<b>Partially complied with</b>	<b>Not complied with</b>	<b>Fully complied with</b>	<b>Partially complied with</b>	<b>Not complied with</b>

**14. Do you think the person who is harmed benefits from this process? (Please tick the box that applies)**

<b>School One</b>	<b>✓</b>	<b>School Two</b>	<b>✓</b>
<b>Yes</b>		<b>Yes</b>	

No		No	
It varies		It varies	
I don't know		I don't know	

**Please explain:**

**15. Do you think the transgressors benefits from this process? (Please tick the box that applies)**

School One	✓	School Two	✓
Yes		Yes	
No		No	
It varies		It varies	
I don't know		I don't know	

**Please explain:**

**16. In your opinion does this process (RA) improve behavioural outcomes? (Please tick the box that applies)**

School One	✓	School Two	✓
Yes		Yes	
No		No	
It varies		It varies	
I don't know		I don't know	

**17. Do you think the school has benefited from the implementation of RA?**

School One	✓	School Two	✓
Yes		Yes	
No		No	
It varies		It varies	
I don't know		I don't know	

**Please explain:**

**18. Has there been any additional training for staff since January 2014? (Please enter a number)**

School One	No.	School Two	No.
Teachers		Teachers	
Management		Management	
Secretarial staff		Secretarial staff	
Grounds staff		Grounds staff	
Canteen staff		Canteen staff	
LSA's		LSA's	
Special needs teachers		Special needs teachers	

**Have there been any general presentations or awareness campaigns since January 2014 (please detail)?**

**19. In your opinion are restorative approaches used in the classroom on a day to day basis? (Please tick the box that applies)**



School One	✓	School Two	✓
Yes		Yes	
No		No	
Don't know		Don't know	

**Please explain:**

**20. In your opinion what proportion of the teachers use restorative approaches in the classroom? (Please tick the box that applies)**

School One	✓	School Two	✓
All the teachers		All the teachers	
More than 50%		More than 50%	
Less than 50%		Less than 50%	
Don't know		Don't know	

**Please explain:**

**21. Of the champions how many do you think undertake formal restorative processes in their classrooms?**

School One	School Two

**22. Has the school environment changed since you started?**

School One	✓	School Two	✓
Yes		Yes	
No		No	
Don't know		Don't know	

**Please briefly explain:**

School One	School Two

**23. In your opinion, have restorative approaches been employed effectively in the school?**  
(Please tick the appropriate box)

School One	✓	School Two	✓
Yes		Yes	
Largely yes		Largely yes	
Largely no		Largely no	
No		No	
Don't know		Don't know	

**Please explain:**

School One	School Two

**24. Did you find any major differences between School One and School Two in their use of RA? (Please tick the appropriate box)**

	✓
Yes	
No	
Not really	
Don't know	

**Please explain:**

Penglais	Lampeter

**25. What were the most significant obstacles to your work in the schools? (Please complete boxes)**

	School One	School Two
1		
2		
3		

	School One	School Two
4		

**26. In your opinion, are the skills you teach in the restorative approaches training transferrable to other aspects of life? (Please tick appropriate box)**

	✓
Yes	✓
No	
Don't know	

**Please briefly explain:**

--

**27. In your opinion, do you think that the implementation of RA has been successful in School One and School Two?**

**Please explain:**

--

**28. In your opinion, how do you think your approaches to RA in schools differs/is the same to the previous RA officer?**

**29. Please include any additional comments or information you think may be helpful or have not been covered by this questionnaire.**

## Appendix F

### Participant Information

**Name:**

**Age range:** 18-25      26-35      36-45      46-55      56+

**Gender:**      Male      Female

**Type of job:**      Teaching      Administrative      Support

Learning support      Technicians      Senior Management

Encil and Hafan

**Subject area or department:**

**Have you undergone any restorative approaches training at the school?:**

Yes      No

**If yes, please give brief details:**

**How many schools have you worked at? (including the one you work in now):**

**How many years have you worked within schools?:**

**The questionnaire is split into three sections. The entire questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes.**

## **Participant Information Sheet**

You are being invited to take part in a study on restorative approaches in schools. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and ask me if anything is not clear or if you would like more information. My contact details and my supervisors contact details will follow.

### **Contact details for further information**

Yasmin Devi McGleish (PhD student) - [yyd8@aber.ac.uk](mailto:yyd8@aber.ac.uk)

Kate Williams (Joint supervisor) - [khw@aber.ac.uk](mailto:khw@aber.ac.uk)

Gareth Norris (Joint supervisor) - [ggn@aber.ac.uk](mailto:ggn@aber.ac.uk)

### **What is the purpose of the research?**

I am a second year PhD student at Aberystwyth University and my research explores the implementation of restorative approaches in schools. To develop a fuller picture of what factors affect the implementation of schools, I will be giving all staff in the school a questionnaire that explores beliefs and opinions surrounding pupil discipline.

### **Do I have to take part?**

Taking part in this research is entirely voluntary. If you do not want to take part please say so. If you decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign the consent forms that follow. There are two consent forms: one for your own records and one for the researcher to keep.

### **Will my taking part in the project be kept confidential?**

All personal information relating to you (e.g. name, subject) will be kept confidential and in a password protected file on a university computer or locked in a filing cabinet. The data included in my thesis will be anonymised so you cannot be identified in any way. The school will not be informed of your answers in any way that is traceable to you.

### **Who has reviewed the research project?**

The project has been reviewed by Aberystwyth University's Research Ethics Committee, in accordance with the university ethical guidelines. It has also been reviewed by the Youth Justice Service.

**Thank you for taking the time to read this sheet.**

**Please keep this copy for your own records.**

**Directions:** Following are 36 statements about schools, teachers, and pupils. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement from **strongly disagree** to **strongly agree**. Your answers are confidential. This section should take around 10 minutes.

1. Wrong-doing should be addressed without removing the student from the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
2. Consequences for wrong-doing should include plans for reintegration into classroom activity	1	2	3	4	5
3. Collective resolution is an appropriate anti-bullying strategy	1	2	3	4	5
4. I have a moral duty to help a student to get back on track	1	2	3	4	5
5. It is my responsibility to develop empathy in students	1	2	3	4	5
6. Fear of punishment is a useful strategy in deterring wrong-doings	1	2	3	4	5
7. When wrong-doing occurs, community members need to express their feelings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Repairing hurt requires sustained effort	1	2	3	4	5
9. Students who do wrong are deserving of respect	1	2	3	4	5
10. Examples should be made of students who are disruptive	1	2	3	4	5
11. In righting a wrong, only the victim's needs should be addressed	1	2	3	4	5
12. The victim's voice is more important than the wrong-doers	1	2	3	4	5
13. Parents should have a voice in the process of righting wrongs	1	2	3	4	5
14. A wrong-doer who is obnoxious always deserves to be treated with dignity	1	2	3	4	5
15. Wrong-doing should be addressed based solely on the teacher's understanding of the situation	1	2	3	4	5
16. All members of the class should have a say on how to deal with wrong-doing	1	2	3	4	5
17. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies	1	2	3	4	5
18. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems though logical reasoning	1	2	3	4	5
19. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique	1	2	3	4	5



20. Early career teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils	1	2	3	4	5
21. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticised by their pupils	1	2	3	4	5
22. The best head teachers give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils	1	2	3	4	5
23. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class	1	2	3	4	5
24. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application	1	2	3	4	5
25. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation	1	2	3	4	5
26. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar	1	2	3	4	5
27. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions	1	2	3	4	5
28. Student councils are a good “safety valve” but should not have much influence on school policy	1	2	3	4	5
29. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision	1	2	3	4	5
30. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense	1	2	3	4	5
31. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused	1	2	3	4	5
32. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly	1	2	3	4	5
33. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers	1	2	3	4	5
34. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished	1	2	3	4	5
35. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
36. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad	1	2	3	4	5



## Appendix G

### Initial Codes

<b>School One Focus Group Codes</b>			
Fairness	Trusting teachers	Respect for teachers	Lack of pupil respect
Likeable teacher traits	Shouting	Detention	Sending pupils out
Unfair	Reward system	Clarity of school rules	Bullying
Hafan as good	Staff personality differences	Increased strictness	Inconsistency
Equal opportunities	Democracy	Consistent punishment	Proportional punishment
Good relationships	Isolation	Differs between subjects	Restorative approaches
Warnings	Classroom disruption	Teachers find cause of behaviour	Consistency
Lack of teacher authority	Communication	Listening	Cool down period

<b>School Two Focus Group Codes</b>			
Inconsistency	Restorative approaches	High expectations	Talk to pupils
Find cause of behaviour	Punitive pupils	Shouting	Proportional punishment
Detention	Send students out	Warnings	Limit lesson disruption
Bullying (bully box)	Favouritism	Should use consistent punishment	Should listen to pupils
Unfairness	Increased strictness	Fairness	Should respect pupils
Unfriendly teacher traits	Excess authority	Tolerance of sixth form	Lack of authority
Ignoring misbehaviour	RA as soft		

## Interview

<b>School One Interview Codes</b>			
Pastoral Support	Points system	Always been restorative	Inconsistency
Budget	Detention	Own Children	Behaviour management
Reluctance to use RA	Instill RA in pupils	Need for punishment	RA doesn't always work
Power imbalances	Punishment/RA conflict	Whole-school approach	Empowering
Naturally restorative	Enthusiasm	Talking as restorative	Shouting as unhelpful
RA effective	Subject differences	Cultural differences	Friendship
Building relationships	Building trust	Respect pupils	Mediation
Managing expectations	Pupils as entitled	Satisfactory outcomes	Consistency
Strictness	Teachers as 'not human'	Consequences of actions	Empathy
Evolving teacher styles	New teachers	Engagement	Reluctance to change
Authority	Career progression	Intimidation	Lack of respect for authority
Control	Classroom disruption	Humiliation	Fairness
Humour	Restorative language	Teacher characteristics	Pupil responsibility
Stakeholders	Dependent on individual	Staff priorities	Punitive parents
RA as slow	Misbehaviour as demoralising	Age	Investing in pupils
Breaking boundaries	Defensiveness	Transferability of skills	Time investment
Resources	Support for RA	RA Officer	Pupil Perceptions
Long term solutions	Boundaries	Active Listening	
Value of pupils	Supported by school	Structure	

School Two Interview Codes			
Instill RA in pupils	Empathy	Behavioural Management Training	Behavioural Boom
Teacher training	Lack of practical knowledge of RA	Lack of theoretical knowledge of RA	Youth generation changing
Pupils as individuals	No “one size fits all”	Pupil Validation	Engagement
Flexibility in approach	Making pupils comfortable	Change in career	Friendship
Teacher/pupil boundaries	Boundary setting	Pupil voice	Pastoral support
Changeability of teacher role	Trust	Supported by school	School community
Guilt	Persistent misbehaviour	Need for traditional punishment	Empathy
Own children	Career progression	Forgiving	Time
Resources	Code of conduct	Clear expectations	Inclusive
Take advantage of RA	Consequences	Pupil maturity	Expectations of students
Classroom removal	Pupils dislike disruption	Ease of punishment	New teachers
Forget to use RA	Habit	Money	Cuts
Changes in society	Changes in pupil	Pupil perceptions of RA	Pupil maturity
RA as a ‘soft approach’	Importance of failure	Another behavioural management tool	Targets
RA officer	External input	Staff priorities	Unsure of RA

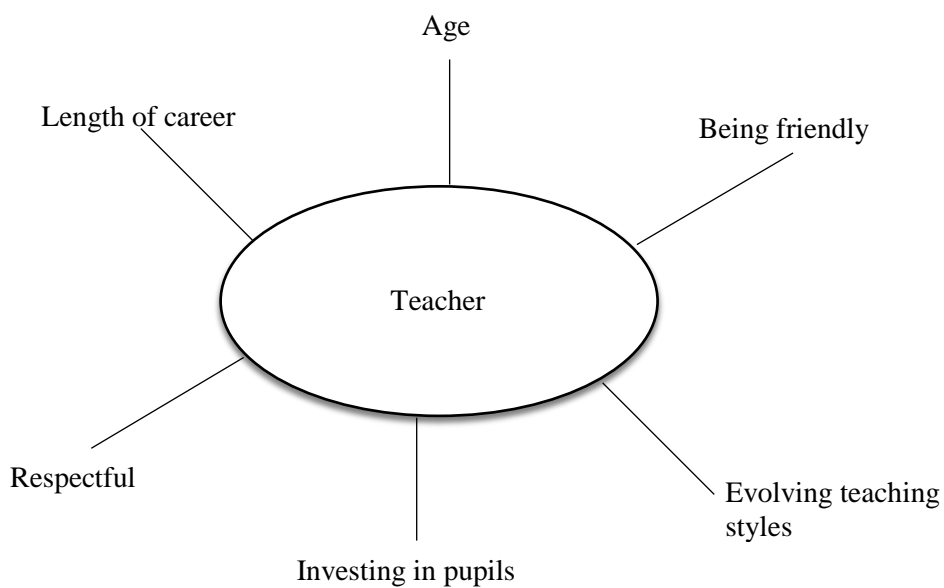
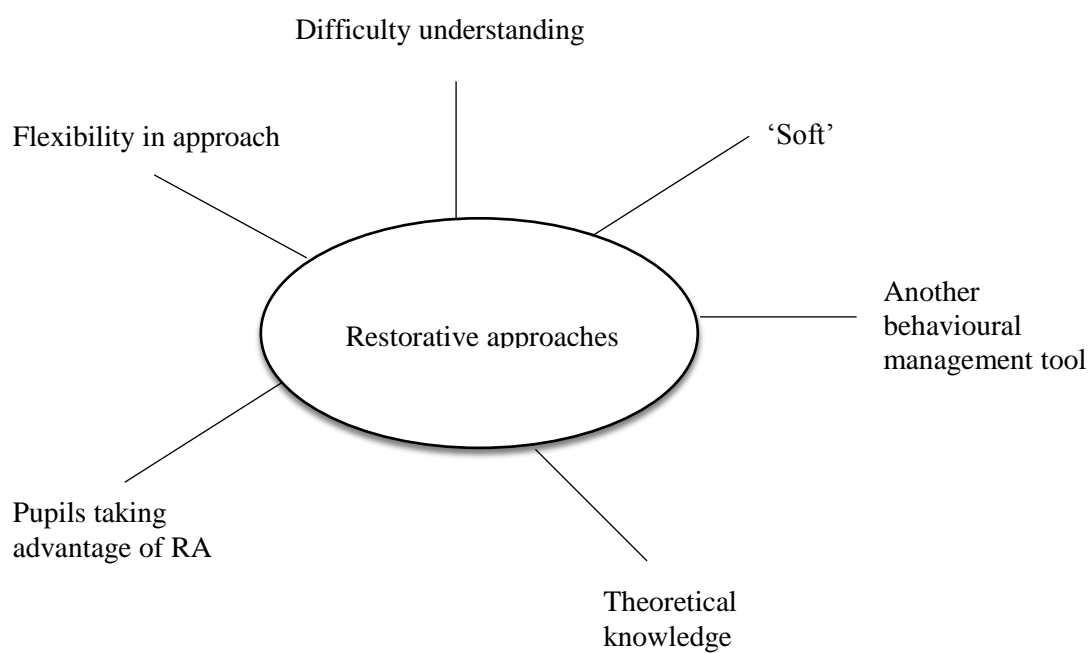
## Observations

School One Observation Codes		
Enthusiasm	Setting expectations with explanation	Positive relationships
Reflection	Encouraging active listening	Reinforcing boundaries
Encouragement	Listening as respectful	Refocusing behaviour
Active Listening	Summarising	Challenging behaviour
Counting down	Impartiality	Refocusing behaviour
Explaining 'why'	Positive dialogue	
Restorative language	Setting boundaries	

School Two Observation Codes		
"Because I said so"	Rule breaking	Consistent use of 'shhh'
Encouraging listening	Limit setting	Authoritarian teacher
Encouragement	Lack of dialogue with person causing disruption	
Control	"don't question me"	
Enthusiasm	Talking over pupils	

## Appendix H

### Thematic Map example



## Thematic Groups and corresponding codes

## Thematic Groups and corresponding codes

### *School One Focus Groups*

<b>Behaviour Management</b>	<b>Teacher Inconsistency and Favouritism</b>	<b>Restorative Approaches</b>	<b>Desirable Teacher Traits</b>
Find cause of behaviour	Differs between subject	Find cause of behaviour	Democracy
Consistent punishment	Sending pupils out	Communication	Consistent
Hafan as good	Unfair favouritism	Listening	Listening
Warnings	Staff personality differences	Good relationships	Trust
Fairness		Restorative approaches	Respect
Democracy			Find cause of behaviour
Equal opportunities			Good relationships
Clarity of school rules			Communication
Reward system			Using proportional punishment
Detention			
Cool down period			
Find cause of behaviour			
Disruption			

### *School Two Focus Groups*

<b>Behaviour Management</b>	<b>Teacher Inconsistency and Favouritism</b>	<b>Short term benefits</b>	<b>Proportional Punishment</b>	<b>Desirable Teacher Traits</b>	<b>Restorative Approaches</b>
Punitive Pupils	Inconsistency	Send students out	Excess authority	Should respect pupils	Restorative approaches
High expectations	Unfriendly teacher traits	Excess authority	Should use consistent punishment	Limit lesson disruption	RA as a soft approach
Unfairness	Tolerant of the sixth form	Should find cause of behaviour	Should listen to pupils	Should find cause of behaviour	
Unfriendly teacher traits	Should use consistent punishment	Limit lesson disruption	Proportional punishment	Fairness	



Excess authority	Lack of authority	Inconsistency	Inconsistency	Should listen to pupils	
Detention	Excess authority				
Ignoring misbehaviour	Favouritism				
Bullying					
Send students out					
Increased strictness					
Lack of authority					

### *School One Interview*

<b>Necessity of punishment</b>	<b>Resources</b>	<b>Behaviour Management</b>	<b>Restorative Skills</b>	<b>Whole-school approach</b>	<b>Understanding of restorative</b>	<b>Length of career</b>	<b>Pupils as disrespectful to authority</b>	<b>Engagement</b>
Pastoral support	Budget	Power imbalances	Pupils being responsible	Reluctance to use RA	Naturally restorative	New teachers	Defensiveness	Humour
Reluctance to use RA	Stakeholders		RA effective	Punishment/RA conflict	Teacher characteristics	Career progression	Dependent on individual	Misbehaviour as demoralising
Strictness	Resources		Evolving teacher styles	Whole-school approach	Talking as restorative	Evolving teacher styles	Fairness	Boundaries
Intimidation	Long-term solutions	Managing expectations	Slowness of RA	Slowness of approach	Investing in pupils	Age	Punitive parents	Long term solutions
Need for punishment	Slowness of RA	Strictness	Long-term solutions	Reluctance to change	Talking as restorative	Own children	Pupil perceptions	Enthusiasm
Humiliation	Staff priorities		Value of pupils		Teacher characteristics	Evolving teacher styles	Empathy	Subject difference
Inconsistency	RA Officer		Instill RA in pupils		RA officer	Own children	Cultural difference	Investing in pupils

							s	
Authority	Time investment		Punishment/RA conflict				Misbehaviour demoralising	Structure
Control			Building trust				Lack of respect for authority	Active listening
Reluctance to use RA			Restorative language				Shouting unhelpful	
RA doesn't always work			Dependent on individuals					
Need for punishment			Support of RA					
Detention			Whole-school approach					
Supported by school			Talking as restorative					
Reluctance to change			Respect pupils					
			Satisfactory outcomes					
			Consequences of actions					
			Engagement					
			Active Listening					
			Structure					
			Investing in pupils					
			Empowering					

			Empathy					
			Fairness					
			Relationship building					
			Respect pupils					
			Pupil responsibility					
			Empathy					
			Mediation					

### *School Two Interview Codes*

<b>Necessity of punishment</b>	<b>Resources</b>	<b>Restorative Skills</b>	<b>Understanding of restorative</b>	<b>Length of career</b>	<b>Staff views of pupils</b>
Guilt	Changeability of teacher role	Instill RA in pupils	RA as a 'soft approach'	Teacher training	Pupils as individuals
Need for traditional punishment	Time	Flexibility in approach	Practical knowledge of RA	Changes in society	Pupils dislike disruption
Ease of punishment	Cuts	Guilt	Unsure of RA	Career progression	Persistent of misbehaviour
Classroom removal	Targets	Empathy	Another behavioural management tool	Changes in pupils	
Consequence	Staff priorities	No "one size fits all"	Take advantage of RA	Change in career	
Another behavioural management tool	External input	Another behavioural management tool	Forget to use RA	New teachers	
Teacher/pupil boundaries	Money	RA officer	RA officer		
Classroom removal	Changeability of teacher role	Engagement	Theory behind RA		

Making pupils comfortable		Trust	Guilt		
Boundary setting		Forgiving	Behavioural management training		
Consequences		School Community	Behavioural Boom		
Habit		Inclusivity	Pastoral Support		
Importance of failure			Pupil maturity		
Code of conduct			Pupil perceptions of RA		
Expectations of students					

### ***School One Observations***

<b>Engagement</b>	<b>Active Listening</b>	<b>Boundaries and expectations</b>	<b>Relationship building</b>
Enthusiasm	Encouragement	Setting boundaries	Positive exchanges
Reflection	Encouraging active listening	Reinforcing boundaries	Encouragement
Encouragement	Listening as respectful	Setting expectations with explanation	Humour
Active Listening	Summarising	Challenging behaviour	Friendly
Counting down	Impartiality	Refocusing behaviour	Positive relationships
Explaining 'why'	Positive dialogue		Respectful exchanges
Restorative language			

### ***School Two Observation Initial Codes***

<b>Traditional lines of punishment</b>	<b>Traditional lines of questioning</b>	<b>Active listening</b>	<b>Low-level disruption</b>
"Because I said so"	Rule breaking	Listening as respectful	Consistent use of 'shhh'
"Don't question me"	Limit setting	Encouraging listening	Talking over pupils
Authoritarian teacher		Summarising	Lack of dialogue with person causing disruption
Control		Enthusiasm	

		Encouragement	
--	--	---------------	--

## Appendix I

### *Consent form sent to parents*

Dear Parent/Guardian,

The School is involved in a Restorative Schools Pilot Project in partnership with the Youth Justice Service. The purpose of the Pilot Project is to develop awareness on Restorative Approaches (RA) and their effectiveness in schools in resolving conflict, for example, between pupils.

We aim to support all individuals to learn better ways to communicate, cope and meet their needs when they are feeling frustrated or angry and ensure that they do not hurt themselves or others. Therefore, where appropriate, the school will implement a Restorative Approach to resolve any disagreements between pupils (see attached information).

To enable us to understand both whether this approach is successful and how it works or fails to work the school is working with the Youth Justice Service and Aberystwyth University to collect and examine information about the project. As part of this process pupils may be asked about things like: their feelings and ideas concerning the school; what they think about the way in which the school disciplines pupils; and their experiences of restorative approaches and discipline.

If you are not happy for your child to be involved in this restorative school pilot project and/ or in the research please sign and return the form below to the above address. If you do not return the reply slip then the school will assume that you agree and if necessary your child will take part in this approach and/ or the research. If you wish to ask any questions before responding to this letter please contact the school.

Yours sincerely,

Restorative Justice Officer,

Youth Justice Service.

-----

I am not happy for my child to be involved in the Restorative Schools Pilot Project.

Signed:- \_\_\_\_\_

I am not happy for my child to be involved in the Research related to the Restorative Schools Pilot Project.

Signed:- \_\_\_\_\_

Parent/Guardian

Date:- \_\_\_\_\_



```

GET
  FILE='M:\documents\Yasmin.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT. T-
TEST GROUPS=Gender(1 2)
  /MISSING=ANALYSIS
  /VARIABLES=RJI_Total
  /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

```

## T-Test

### Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	N of Rows in Working Data File	58
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	User defined missing values are treated as missing. Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.
Syntax		T-TEST GROUPS=Gender(1 2) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

[DataSet1] M:\documents\Yasmin.sav

### Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
RJI_Total	Female	59.67	6	

### Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total			-	
Equal variances assumed			.3	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total		-	1
Equal variances assumed		.5	.9

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
RJI_Total	-	3
Equal variances assumed	4. 39	. 2

```

ONEWAY RJI_Total PCI_Total BY Gender
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .

```

## Oneway



Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI\_Total because there are fewer than three groups.  
Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI\_Total because there are fewer than three groups.

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	N of Rows in Working Data File	58
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		ONEWAY RJI_Total Statistics for each analysis are based on cases with no missing data for any variable in the analysis.

Warnings

Sum of Squares ANOVA


```
T-TEST GROUPS=School (1
2) /MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .
```

T-Test

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	58 User defined missing values are treated as missing. Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis. T-TEST GROUPS=School
Syntax		(1 2)MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

#### Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
RJI_Total	1 sample	60.76	6	1
PCI_Total	1 sample	55.76	7	1

#### Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total Equal variances assumed	.134	.716		
PCI_Total Equal variances assumed	1.665	.203	- .3	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total Equal variances assumed		1 .6	1 .7
PCI_Total Equal variances assumed		- .5	1 .7

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total Equal variances assumed	- 1. 78	5 .1
PCI_Total Equal variances assumed	- 4. 07	2 .9

```

T-TEST GROUPS=Gender (1 2)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=Gender(1 2) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>
Syntax		

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
PCI_Total	Female	57.32	6	.2

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
PCI_Total			2	
Equal variances assumed			.4	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		4	1
Equal variances assumed		.6	.8

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total		8
Equal variances assumed		.4

```

T-TEST GROUPS=PI5 (1 3)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCJ_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=PI5(1</p> <p>3) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>
Syntax		

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
RJI_Total	School	14	59.14	5
Preparation				1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means
RJI_Total		
Equal variances assumed		-1

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total		-	3
Equal variances assumed		4. 19	. 7

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total	-	3
Equal variances assumed	12.0 8496	. 7

```

T-TEST GROUPS=PI5 (1 3)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=PI5(1</p> <p>3) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>
Syntax		

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
PCI_Total	School	13	58.61	6
Presentation			5.4	1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means
PCI_Total		1
Equal variances assumed		0



### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		4	4
Equal variances assumed		.2	0

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total	-	13.
Equal variances assumed	4.	045
	48	75

```

ONEWAY RJI_Total BY Age
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .

```

## Oneway

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Save File	58
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJL_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCJ_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
	Cases Used	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		ONEWAY: RJL_Total BY Age, Missing Analysis Agate Missing Analysis no post hoc analysis. POSTHOC: TUEBY Age, Alpha(.05) no post hoc analysis.

## ANOVA

RJL\_Total

	Sum of				

## Post Hoc Tests

Difference (I-

Dependent Variable: RJI\_Total  
Tukey HSD

**Multiple Comparisons**

	Mean				
10 30					
10 30					
10 30					

## Homogeneous Subsets

### RJI\_Total

Tukey HSD<sup>a,b</sup>

		Subset for alpha = 0.05

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 8.533.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

```
ONEWAY PCI_Total BY Age
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .
```

## Oneway

Notes

Input	Data	
	Save File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	58
	Cases Used	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		ONEWAY, PCI_Total BY Statistics for each analysis Agate Missing Analysis no post hoc analysis. POSTHOC, TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) display

ANOVA

PCI_Total					
	Sum of				

Post Hoc Tests

Difference (I-

Dependent Variable: PCI\_Total  
Tukey HSD

**Multiple Comparisons**

	Mean				
10 30					
10 30					
10 30					

## Homogeneous Subsets



## PCI\_Total

Tukey HSD<sup>a,b</sup>

		Subset for alpha = 0.05

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 8.473.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

```
T-TEST GROUPS=PI4(1 3)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).
```

## T-Test

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	<small>Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.</small>	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	
Syntax		

58  
User defined missing values are treated as missing.  
Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.  
T-TEST GROUPS=PI4(1  
3) /MISSING=ANALYSIS  
/VARIABLES=RJI\_Total  
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

Warnings

Group Statistics

				Std. Error
R	21	60.19 25	5.39091	Mean 1.17639

a. t cannot be computed because at least one of the groups is empty.

T-TEST GROUPS=PI4(1 2)  
/MISSING=ANALYSIS  
/VARIABLES=PCI\_Total  
/CRITERIA=CI(.95) .

T-Test

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Missing Value Handling	<p>Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.</p> <p>Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.</p> <p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=PI4(1</p>
Syntax	Cases Used	<p>2) /MISSING=ANALYSIS</p> <p>/VARIABLES=PCI_Total</p> <p>/CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

Group Statistics

				Std. Error
P		55.55	7	Mean 1

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
PCI_Total			-	
Equal variances assumed			.4	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		-	1
Equal variances assumed		.7	.8

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total	-	2
Equal variances assumed	4.45	.8

```

T-TEST GROUPS=PI4(1 2)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=PI4(1</p> <p>2) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>
Syntax		

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
R		60.19	5	1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total				
Equal variances assumed				

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total			1
Equal variances assumed			.7

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total		4
Equal variances assumed	- 3. 00	. 1

```

T-TEST GROUPS=School (1 2)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for RCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=School</p>
Syntax		<p>(1 2)MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
RJI_Total	Empty	60.76	6	1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total				
Equal variances assumed				

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total		1	1
Equal variances assumed		.6	.7

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total	-	5
Equal variances assumed	1. 78	. 1

```

T-TEST GROUPS=School (1 2)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test



## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=School</p> <p>(1 2)MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>
Syntax		

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
PCI_Total	Mean	55.76	7	1
Language				

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
PCI_Total			-	
Equal variances assumed			.3	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		-	1
Equal variances assumed		.5	.7

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total	-	2
Equal variances assumed	4. 07	. 9

```

T-TEST GROUPS=School (1 2)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=Age
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for R <sup>2</sup> Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for R <sup>2</sup> Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=School</p>
Syntax		<p>(1 2)MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=Age /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
Age	L			Mean

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
Age				
Equal variances assumed				

		t-test for Equality of ..
		Confidence ..
		Upper
Ag	Equal variances assumed	.657
		.657

Confidence

Independent Samples Test

				95%
		Mean	Std. Error	
Age		Difference		
Equal variances assumed				

Equal variances not assumed

Independent Samples Test

```

ONEWAY RJI_Total BY Role
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .

```

95%

Oneway

Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI\_Total because at least one group has fewer than two cases.

Input	Data	
	Split File	58
	<small>Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than two groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than two groups.</small>	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		Statistics for Each Analysis ONEWAY PCI_Total BY Role /MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05).

Warnings

ANOVA

RJI\_Total

	Sum of				

```
ONEWAY PCI_Total BY Role
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .
```

Oneway

Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI\_Total because at least one group has fewer than two cases.

Input	Data	
	Split File	58
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		Statistics for each analysis are based on cases with no missing data for any variable in the analysis. ONEWAY RJT_Total BY PI6 /MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05).

Warnings

ANOVA

PCI\_Total

	Sum of				

```
ONEWAY RJT_Total BY PI6
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .
```

Oneway

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCJ_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	58
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		Statistics for each analysis are based on cases with no missing data for any variable in the analysis. ONE-WAY ANOVA POSTHOC TESTS ALPHA(0.05)

ANOVA

RJI_Total					
	Sum of				

Post Hoc Tests

Difference (I-

Dependent Variable: RJI\_Total  
Tukey HSD

**Multiple Comparisons**



	Mean				
15 0.10					
50 0.10					
100 0.10					

Homogeneous Subsets

RJI_Total		
Tukey HSD <sup>a,b</sup>		
		Subset for alpha = 0.05

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 8.130.
- b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

```

ONEWAY PCI_Total BY PI6
/MISSING ANALYSIS
/POSTHOC=TUKEY ALPHA(0.05) .

```

## Oneway

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Save File	58
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		ONEWAY, PCI_Total BY Statistics for each analysis 6. MISSING ANALYSIS Can be used on data sets with no missing data. Use any Alpha (0.05) analysis.

## ANOVA

PCI\_Total

	Sum of				

## Post Hoc Tests

Difference (I-

Dependent Variable: PCI\_Total  
Tukey HSD

**Multiple Comparisons**

	Mean				
15 0.10					
20 0.10					
25 0.10					

Homogeneous Subsets

## PCI\_Total

Tukey HSD<sup>a,b</sup>

		Subset for alpha = 0.05

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 8.009.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

```
T-TEST GROUPS=Gender(1 2)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total filter_$
/CRITERIA=CI(.95) .
```

## T-Test

Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used	58
	Definition of Missing	User defined missing values are treated as missing.
Syntax		Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.
		T-TEST
		GROUPS=Gender(1 2)
		/MISSING=ANALYSIS
		/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
		filter_\$
		/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

Group Statistics

				Std. Error
R		59.67	6	Mean
School = 2 (FILTER)	Female			

RJI_Total	.343	.561	- .3
School = 2 (FILTER)	.582	.449	

Independent Samples Test

Equal variances assumed

Equal variances not assumed

Equal variances assumed

Equal variances not assumed





### Independent Samples Test

			Mean Difference
RJI_Total			-
Equal variances assumed			.5
School = 2 (FILTER)			
Equal variances assumed			

### Independent Samples Test

	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the	
		Difference	
RJI_Total			
Equal variances assumed	1 .9	- 4. 39	3 .2
School = 2 (FILTER)			
Equal variances assumed			

```

T-TEST GROUPS=Age (1 5)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=Age(1</p>
Syntax		<p>5) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
RJI_Total	18-	4	62.00	7
25				3

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total			1	
Equal variances assumed			3	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total		5	3
Equal variances assumed		.1	.9

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total	-	13.
Equal variances assumed	3. 50	727 95

```

T-TEST GROUPS=Age (1 5)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=Age(1</p>
Syntax		<p>5) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
PCI_Total	18-25	4	58.25	3
				1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
PCI_Total				
Equal variances assumed				

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		1	3
Equal variances assumed		.5	.7

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total	-	9
Equal variances assumed	6. 59	. 7

```

T-TEST GROUPS=Age (2 5)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	58 User defined missing values are treated as missing. Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis. T-TEST GROUPS=Age(2
Syntax		5) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

## Group Statistics

					Std. Error
					Mean
RJI_Total	26-	11	60.72	5	1
25			72		

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total			1	
Equal variances assumed			4	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total		3	2
Equal variances assumed		.8	.6

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total	-	9
Equal variances assumed	1. 75	. 4

```

T-TEST GROUPS=Age (2 5)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI (.95) .

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=Age(2</p> <p>5) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>
Syntax		

## Group Statistics

					Std. Error
					Mean
PCI_Total	26-	11	55.45	6	1
25			45		

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
PCI_Total			-	
Equal variances assumed			.4	



### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		-	3
Equal variances assumed		1. 21	. 0

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total	-	5
Equal variances assumed	7. 55	. 1

```

T-TEST GROUPS=PI6(1 6)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=RJI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for RJI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 2 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=PI6(1</p>
Syntax		<p>6) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=RJI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
RJI_Total	1-5	57.84	5	1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
RJI_Total			-	
Equal variances assumed			2	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
RJI_Total		-	2
Equal variances assumed		5	2

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
RJI_Total	-	4
Equal variances assumed	5. 30	1

```

T-TEST GROUPS=PI6(1 6)
/MISSING=ANALYSIS
/VARIABLES=PCI_Total
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

```

## T-Test

## Notes

Input	Data	
	Split File	
	Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups. Post hoc tests are not performed for PCI_Total because there are fewer than 3 groups.	
Missing Value Handling	Cases Used Definition of Missing	<p>User defined missing values are treated as missing.</p> <p>Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.</p> <p>T-TEST GROUPS=PI6(1</p>
Syntax		<p>6) /MISSING=ANALYSIS /VARIABLES=PCI_Total /CRITERIA=CI(.95).</p>

## Group Statistics

				Std. Error
				Mean
PCI_Total	1-5	59.15	4	1

## Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
PCI_Total			2	
Equal variances assumed			.5	

### Independent Samples Test

		Mean Difference	Std. Error
PCI_Total		6	2
Equal variances assumed		.3	.4

### Independent Samples Test

	95% Confidence Interval of the	
	Difference	
PCI_Total	1	11.
Equal variances assumed	.2	466 11